

HISTORICAL OUTLINES
OF
ENGLISH ACCIDENCE

COMPRISING

CHAPTERS ON THE HISTORY AND DEVELOPMENT OF
THE LANGUAGE, AND ON WORD-FORMATION

BY THE LATE

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PREFACE

IN the year 1889 the late Dr. Morris did me the honour of inviting me to revise his "Historical Outlines of English Accidence," which, for twenty years, was the best introduction to the elements of English philology, but which required material correction in order to bring it into harmony with the results of the investigations of recent times. Dr. Morris was prevented from doing the revision himself, his time being wholly taken up by his school work, and what little leisure was left to him being devoted to his studies in Pāli; but I was to have the advantage of his immense knowledge and judicious advice. Unfortunately, that celebrated scholar died before I was able to put the revised "Accidence" into his hands, and I cannot too warmly express my thanks to Mr. Bradley, who, in time of need, kindly undertook to supervise my revision. I am

PREFACE

indebted to him for constant advice and criticism, and, in addition to making many suggestions, he carefully read the proofs and re-wrote part of those sections in which I had given a short account of the relation between English and the other Teutonic and Indo-European languages.

The main features in which the new edition differs from the original are the following:—

(1) The confusion existing in the original work between sounds and letters has (so far as it could be done without absolutely rewriting the book) been remedied.

(2) The treatment of English sounds and their history has been thoroughly remodelled in accordance with the results of modern investigations.

(3) The statement of Grimm's Law has been corrected, and an account of Verner's Law added.

(4) The theory of vowel-gradation has been fully explained, and, in consequence of this, the chapter on the strong verbs has had to be altered in many essential points.

(5) The chapter on Word-formation has been entirely re-written.

The statements relating to the Early English dialects

have been left nearly untouched; the late Dr. Morris was a pioneer and master in this part of English philology, and the investigations of other scholars have, on the whole, confirmed the characteristics pointed out by the author of the "Accidence."

L. KILLNER.

VIENNA, *August*, 1895.

CONTRACTIONS

- 'Abs. and Achith. = Absalom and Achitophel.
- Allit. = Alliterative Poems (ed. Morris).
- Areop. = Milton's Areopagitica (ed. Arber).
- Ayenbite = Ayenbite of Inwyt (ed. Morris).
- B. and F. = Beaumont and Fletcher.
- Boeth = Boethius.
- C. Tales = Canterbury Tales.
- Compl. of L. Lyfe = Complaint of a Lover's Lyfe (attributed to Chaucer).
- Confess. Amant. = Confessio Amantis (Gower).
- Coriol. = Coriolanus.
- Cosmog. = Cosmography (Earle).
- Cymb. = Cymbeline.
- Dan. = Danish.
- E. E. Poems = Early English Poems (ed. Furnivall).
- E. E. Spec. = Specimens of Early English (ed. Morris).
- F. Q. = Faerie Queene.
- Gen. and Ex. = Story of Genesis and Exodus (ed. Morris).
- Germ. = German.
- Gest. Rom. = Gesta Romanorum (Early English Version).
- Goth. = Gothic.
- Gr. = Greek.
- Icel. = Icelandic.

Lat. = Latin.

La3. = La3amon's Brut (ed. Madden).

Med. Lat. = Mediæval Latin.

Mel. = Anatomy of Melancholy (Byrton).

Mid. H. G. = Middle High German.

O. E. = Old English.

O. E. Hom. = Old English Homilies (ed. Morris).

O. F. = Old French.

O. H. Ger. = Old High German.

O. N. = Old Norse.

Orm. = Ormulum (ed. White).

O. Sax. = Old Saxon.

P. L. = Paradise Lost.

P. of C. = Pricke of Conscience (ed. Morris).

P. of P. = Pastime of Pleasure.

Pilgrimage = Pilgrimage of the Lyf of Manhode (ed. Ald's Wright).

Prov. E. = Provincial English.

Robt. of Gl. = Robert of Gloucester.

Sansk. = Sanskrit.

Shep. Cal. = Shepherd's Calendar.

Spec. E. E. = Specimens of Early English (ed. Morris).

Swed. = Swedish.

Tr. and Cr. = Troilus and Cressida.

Trist. = Lay of Sir Tristram (ed. Scott).

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HISTORICAL OUTLINES
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CHAPTER I

FAMILIES OF LANGUAGES

1. WORDS are articulate sounds used to express perception and thought. The aggregate of these articulate sounds, accepted by and current among any community, we call *speech* or *language*.

2. The language of the same community often presents local varieties; to these varieties we give the name of *dialects*.

3. Grammar treats of the words of which language is composed, and of the laws by which it is governed.

4. The science of Grammar is of two kinds:

(a) **Descriptive Grammar**, which classifies, arranges, and describes words as separate parts of speech, and notes the changes they undergo under certain conditions.

(b) **Comparative Grammar**, which is based on the study of words, goes beyond the limits of Descriptive

Grammar; that is, beyond the mere statement of facts. It analyses words, accounts for the changes they have undergone, and endeavours to trace them back to their origin. It thus deals with the growth of language.

Descriptive Grammar teaches us that the word *love* is a verb, indicative mood, &c. Comparative Grammar informs us, (1) that the radical part of the verb is *lov* (or *luf*), denoting desire (cp. Lat. *lubeo*); (2) that the suffix *-th* is of the same origin as the *-t* in *love-t*.

- 5. Comparative Grammar has shown us that languages may be classified in two ways: (1) According to the peculiarities of their grammatical structure, or the mode of denoting the relation of words to one another; (2) according to historical relationship.

• 6. The first mode of classification is called a *morphological* one. It divides languages into three classes, viz.: (1) Monosyllabic or Isolating; (2) Agglutinative; (3) Inflectional or Polysyllabic.

Some scholars maintain that these three classes represent three periods in the growth of language; that is to say, that the monosyllabic type was the earliest form of language, and that the agglutinative type was developed from this, and by a further development gave rise to the inflectional type. But this theory is now strongly disputed.

(1) In languages of the monosyllabic type, roots are used as words, without any change of form.

In these languages there are no prefixes or suffixes, and no formally distinguished parts of speech.

• The Chinese is the best example of a language of the isolating or monosyllabic class.

“Every word in Chinese is monosyllabic; and the same word, without any change of form, may be used as a noun, a verb, an adjective, an adverb, or a particle. Thus *ta*, according to its position in a sentence, may mean great, greatness, to grow, very much, very.

"We cannot in Chinese (as in Latin) derive from *ferrum*, iron, a new substantive *ferrarius*, a man who works in iron, a blacksmith; *ferraria*, an iron mine, and again *ferrariarius*, a man who works in an iron mine; all this is possible only in an inflected language."—MAX MÜLLER.

(2) In languages of the agglutinative class two unaltered roots are joined together to form words; in these compounds one root becomes subordinate to the other, and so loses its independence.¹ Cf. *man-kind*, *hair-loom*, *war-like*, which are agglutinative compounds. The Finnish, Hungarian, Turkish, the Tamul, &c., are agglutinative languages.

The Basque and American languages are agglutinative, with this difference, that the roots which are joined together have been abbreviated, as in the Basque *ilhun*, "twilight," from *hill*, dead + *egun*, day. In the Mexican language their compound terms are equivalent to phrases and sentences, *achichillacachocan*, "the place where people weep because the water is red;" from *alt*, "water;" *chichiltic*, "red," *tlacatl*, "man;" and *chorea*, "weep."

It has been proposed to call these languages *polysynthetic* or *incorporating*. It is remarkable that most of these languages show that the people who speak them are deficient in the power of abstraction.

(3) In languages of the inflexional class, roots are modified by prefixes or suffixes. To this class Greek, Latin, German, English, &c., as well as Hebrew, Arabic, &c., belong.

The advocates of the theory that the three classes represent successive stages of development are able to point to the undoubted fact that inflexional languages present features resembling those of the other two

¹ Cp. Hungarian *vár-at-and-ít-tok* (= wait-and-will-have-you) = you will have been waited for.

classes, and that many prefixes and suffixes were once independent words, which have become mere inflexions through an intermediate process of agglutination. Take, for example, the following :—

He is *like* God = monosyllabic.

He is *God-like* = agglutinative.

He is *God-ly* = inflexional.

Here the syllable *ly* = *like*, originally a word, has dwindled down to a formative element or suffix.

But, on the other hand, many languages have developed from a highly inflexional type to one which is to a considerable extent agglutinative or monosyllabic. In some degree this is the case with English.

7. The classification of languages according to historical relationship is a *genealogical* one.

Historical relationship may be shown by comparing the grammar and vocabulary of any two or more languages; if their systems of grammatical inflexions bear a close resemblance to one another, and if there be a general agreement in the employment of those terms that are least likely to have been lost or displaced by borrowed terms (such as pronouns, numerals, words denoting near relationship, &c.), then it may be safely asserted that such languages are related to one another.

Historical relationship, then, rests upon (1) the similarity of grammatical structure; (2) the fundamental identity of roots.

8. Comparative Grammar teaches us that the English language is a member of a group of allied languages, to which the term **Teutonic** has been given.

By continental scholars the designation commonly employed is *Germanic*. This is in itself a more correct term than *Teutonic*, because *Germani* was the name which the Romans applied to *all* the peoples speaking languages of this class, while *Teutones* or *Teutoni* was merely the name of *one* of these peoples. But since in Modern English we apply the name *German* in a narrowed sense to the people who call themselves *Deutsche* and whom the French call *Allemands*, the use of the adjective *Germanic* in its proper wide sense

is somewhat inconvenient. The chief objection to it is that it has no corresponding substantive. Although there is no ambiguity in saying that the English language is "Germanic," we could not speak of the English and the Scandinavians as "Germans." Hence it is that scholars in this country usually prefer the term Teutonic. Mediaeval Latin writers who affected classicality employed *Teutonicus* as a fine elegant synonym for *Theotiscus*, the Latinized form of *theotisk*, *theodisk*, "belonging to (our own) people" (from the word appearing in Old High German as *diot*, in Old English as *þeod*, people), modern forms of which are *Deutsch* (the name by which the Germans call their own language) and *Dutch*.

The name *German* was probably given to the Teutons by some continental Keltic tribes. By some philologists the word *German* is said to mean howlers, shriekers (from Keltic *gairm-a*, to cry out), on account of their warlike shouts.

9. The Teutonic dialects may be arranged in the following groups or subdivisions:—

- (1) The West-Teutonic, including (a) Low German, (b) High German; (2) the East-Teutonic, including only Gothic; (3) the North-Teutonic or Scandinavian.¹

The English language is a Low German dialect, and is closely allied to the dialects still spoken on the northern shores and lowlands of Germany. This relationship is easily accounted for by the emigration of the Angles, Saxons, and other Low German tribes from the lowlands of Germany situated between the Rhine and Baltic coasts.

I. To the Low German division belong the following languages:—

- (1) **Frisian.** (a) *Old Frisian* as preserved in documents of the twelfth and thirteenth centuries; (b) *Modern Frisian*, still spoken in Friesland, along the coasts and islands of the North Sea between the Rhine and the Ems.

¹ Many scholars class Gothic and Scandinavian together as East-Teutonic.

The Frisian is more closely allied to English than the rest of the Low German languages. The chief features common to Old Frisian and Old English are:—

(1) Teutonic *a* becomes *æ* (in Frisian written *e*) in certain positions, as in O.E. *fæt*, Frisian *fet* (vat).

(2) Teutonic *a* becomes *o* before nasals, as in *mon* (man).

(3) Teutonic *k* and *g* are fronted (become palatal sounds) before front vowels (*e*, *i*) as in *céace* (check), *geldan* (yield).

(2) **Dutch.** (a) *Old* and *Middle Dutch* (as seen in documents from the thirteenth to the sixteenth century); (b) *Modern Dutch*, spoken in Holland.

(3) **Flemish.** (a) *Early Flemish*, the language of the Court of Flanders and Brabant in the sixteenth century; (b) *Modern Flemish*.

(4) **Old Saxon**, or the Saxon of the Continent, spoken between the Rhine and Elbe, which had its origin in the districts of Munster, Essen, and Cleves.

There is a specimen of this dialect in a poetical version of the Gospels (of the ninth century), entitled the *Héliand* (O.E. *Héland*, German *Heiland*) = the *Healer* or Saviour.

The Old Saxon is very closely related to English, and retains many Teutonic inflexions that have disappeared in other Low German dialects. It is a peculiarity of Old Frisian, Old English, and Old Saxon to drop *m* and *n* before the voiceless spirants *f*, *th*, *s*, and, at the same time, to lengthen the preceding vowel:—*fif* (five), Gothic *fimf*; *mūth* (mouth), German *mund*; *ūs* (us), German *uns*. A

great many words and phrases are peculiar to Old English poetry and to the Old Saxon poem, *Heliand*.

- (5) **English.** (a) Old English; (b) Middle English; (c) Modern English, including Standard English, Provincial English, and Lowland Scotch.

II. To the **High German** division belongs Modern German, the literary dialect of Germany, properly the speech of the south-east of Germany, Bavaria, Austria, and some adjacent districts.

It is divided into three stages—

- (a) Old High German, comprising a number of dialects (the Thuringian, Franconian, Swabian, Alsatian, Swiss, and Bavarian), spoken in Upper or South Germany from the beginning of the eighth to the middle of the eleventh century.
- (b) Middle High German, the literary language from the beginning of the twelfth to the end of the fifteenth century.
- (c) Modern High German, from the end of the fifteenth century to the present time.

Luther ennobled the dialect he used in his beautiful translation of the Bible, and made the High German the literary language of all German-speaking people. The Low German dialects of the Continent are yielding to its influence.

III. The **Gothic**, the oldest and most primitive of the Teutonic dialects of which literary remains are known, was spoken by the Eastern and Western Goths, who originally lived near the Vistula, but migrated about the third century of the Christian era to the neighbourhood of the Danube and the Black Sea, and afterwards overran all the countries of Southern Europe.

The oldest record of this dialect is found in the translation of the Bible by Bishop Ulphilas (born 311, died 381), the greater part of which has perished, though we still possess considerable portions of the Gospels and St. Paul's Epistles, some pieces of the Old Testament, and a small portion of a Commentary.

IV. To the **Scandinavian** division belong the following tongues:—(1) Icelandic; (2) Norwegian; (3) Swedish; (4) Danish.

Iceland was colonized by the Northmen, who established a Republic there, and were converted to Christianity A.D. 1000.

10. If we compare English and Modern German we find them very clearly distinguished from each other by regular phonetic changes: thus a *d* in English corresponds to a *t* in German, as *dance* and *tanz*; *day* and *tag*; *deep* and *tief*; *drink* and *trink*. A *c* in English agrees with an *ss* or *z* in German, as is shown by *foot* and *fuss*; *tin* and *zinn*; *to* and *zu*; *two* and *zwei*; *water* and *wasser*. A German *d* is equivalent to our *th*, as *die* and *the*; *dein* and *thine*; *bad* and *bath*, &c.

Not only English, but all the remaining members of the Teutonic family, are thus distinguished from High German.

11. The Scandinavian dialects differ from the other members of the Teutonic family in the following particulars:—

(1) The definite article follows its substantive, and coalesces with it

In O. Norse *inn*=ille; *in*=ille; *ill*=illud: hence *haki-nn*, the cock; *giöf-in*, the gift; *fat-it*, the vessel.

In Swedish and Danish *en* (mas. fem.) and *en* (neut.) = the.

<i>Swed.</i> —Konung- <i>en</i> , the king.		hord- <i>et</i> , the table.
<i>Dan.</i> —Kong- <i>en</i> , „ „		hjer- <i>et</i> , the heart.

(2) The reflexive pronoun *sik* (O.N.), *sig* (Swed. and Dan.), Lat. *se*, = *self*, coalesces with verbs, and forms a reflexive suffix: as O.N. *at falla* = fall down, and *sik* = self, produce the reflexive (or middle) verb *at fallask*.

The reflexive or middle voice thus formed came to be used in the later language as a passive; as O.N. *at kalla*, to call, *at kallask* (afterwards *kallaz*, *kallast*), to be called. In English we have borrowed at least two of these reflexive verbs; namely, *bu-sk*, from the Icel. *bú-a*, to prepare, make ready, direct one's course, and *ba-sk* (= *baða-sk*) from Icel. *baða*, to warm, which is identical with Eng. *bathe*.

12. Comparative Philology has also proved to us that English belongs to a group of dialects that form a subdivision of a great family of related languages, to which the term **Indo-European** has been applied.

When we recollect that the Indo-European family comprehends nearly all the languages of Europe, and all those Indian dialects that have sprung from the old Hindu language (Sanskrit), the term is by no means an inappropriate one. An older designation, which is still very widely used, is *Indo-Germanic*, and many scholars prefer to use the term *Aryan*. The word *Aryan* is a Sanskrit word, meaning *honourable*, *noble*. It was the name by which the old Hindus and Persians, who at a very early period had attained a high degree of culture and civilization, used to call themselves in contradistinction to the uncivilized races or non-Aryans of India whom they conquered.

As a substitute for Indo-European, the word *Aryan* has the great advantage of brevity. On the other hand, it is open to the objection that none of the European peoples are known to have applied it to themselves, and that many philologists use it in a narrower and historically more

correct sense, to denote the languages belonging to the Asiatic branch of the family. In this volume, however, it will be used in its wider meaning.

There are two great divisions of the Indo-European family: A. European; B. Asiatic.

The European division chiefly differs from the Asiatic in the following points:—

(1) In Sanskrit and Old Persian *e* and *o* are represented by *a*, the European languages have kept the old vowels *o*, *e*, *a*. Sanskrit *pāncan* (five), Avesta *panca*, Greek *πέντε*, Gothic *fimf*; Sanskrit *bhārāmi* (I bear), Greek *φέρω*, Gothic *baira* (read *bera*): Sanskrit *āsti* (is), Greek *ἔστί*, Gothic *ist*; Sanskrit *aṣṭau*, Latin *octo*; Sanskrit *dadārça*, Greek *δέδορκα*.

(2) In the Asiatic division we find *r* in many words, where the European languages exhibit *l*; Sanskrit *racāya-ti* (leaves, abandons), Greek *λεῖπ-ε(τ)ι*; Sanskrit *rōkā*, (light), Latin *lux*; Gothic *liuhab*.

(3) The Asiatic group is wanting in many roots which are common to all the European languages:—*ar* (to plough), *ma* (to mow), *ml* (to grind), *se* (to sow).

A. EUROPEAN DIVISION.

I. The Teutonic Languages, which will be dealt with in the following chapters.

II. The Celtic Languages.

- (i) *Britannic Class*.—(1) Welsh; (2) Cornish (died out about the beginning of the nineteenth century); (3) Bas-Breton (or Armorican).
- (ii) *Gaelic Class*.—(1) Irish; (2) Gaelic, spoken in the Highlands of Scotland; (3) Manx (the dialect spoken in the Isle of Man).

III. The Italic Languages.

(i) Old Italian dialects, as the Latin, the Oscan (of South Italy), the Umbrian (of N.E. Italy), the Sabine.

(ii) The Romanic dialects, which have sprung from the Latin. (1) Italian; (2) French; (3) Provençal; (4) Spanish; (5) Portuguese; (6) Rhaeto-Romanic (or Roumansch), spoken in Southern Switzerland; (7) Wallachian, spoken in the northern provinces of Turkey (Wallachia and Moldavia).

The Wallachian is divided by the Danube into two dialects, the Northern and the Southern. It owes its origin chiefly to the Roman colonies sent into Dacia by Trajan.

IV. The Hellenic Languages.

(1) Ancient Greek (comprising the Attic, Ionic, Doric, and Æolic dialects).

(2) Modern Greek (comprising several dialects).

The *Albanian* dialect is a representative of the language spoken by the Illyrians, who probably occupied the Greek peninsula before the Hellenic tribes. All that can be positively stated about it is that it belongs to the Indo-European family, and is closely related to Greek. The Albanians inhabit part of the ancient Epirus and Illyricum. They call themselves Skipetars or mountaineers, and the Turks call them *Arnauts* (= *Arbanites*).

V. The Slavonic Languages.

(i) South-east Slavonic.

(1) Old Bulgarian (or Old Church Slavic) of the ninth century.

(2) Russian; (a) Russian proper; (b) Little Russian or Ruthenian.

(3) Illyric, comprising, (a) Servian; (b) Kroatian; (c) Slovenian (of Carinthia and Styria).

(ii) Western Branch.

(4) Polish.

(5) Bohemian.

(6) Slovakian.

(7) Upper and Lower Sorbian (Lusatian dialects)

(8) Polabian (on the Elbe).

VI. The Lettic Languages.

- (1) Old Prussian (the original language of N.E. Prussia).
- (2) Lettish or Livonian (spoken in Kurland and Livonia).
- (3) Lithuanian (spoken in Eastern Prussia, and in the Russian provinces of Kowno and Wilna).

The Turkish, Hungarian, Basque, Lappish, Finnish, and Estonian do not belong to the Indo-European family.

B. ASIATIC DIVISION.

VII. The Indian Languages.

- (1) Sanskrit (dead).
- (2) Prakrit (Indian dialects, preserved in Sanskrit dramas).
- (3) Pali (the sacred language of the Buddhists).
- (4) Modern Indian dialects descended from Sanskrit, as Hindi, Hindustani, Bengali, Mahratti.
- (5) Gypsy dialect. (The Gypsies are of Indian origin.)

VIII. The Iranian Languages.

- (1) Zend (or Zand), more correctly Avestic, the language of the Zoroastrians, preserved in the Zend-Avesta, or sacred writings of the old Persians, parts of which are at least a thousand years old.
- (2) The language of the cuneiform inscriptions of Darius and Xerxes and their successors (of the Achaemenid dynasty), the oldest of them being about five centuries before Christ.
- (3) Pehlevi or Huzvaresh, the language of the Sassanian dynasty (A.D. 226—651).
- (4) Parsi or Pazend, spoken in a more eastern locality than the Pehlevi, about the time of the Mohammedan conquest.
- (5) Modern Persian, which differs but little from the Parsi, arose after the Mohammedan conquest. Its first great national work, *Shah-Nameh*, was written by Firdusi (died 1020).

The *Armenian*, *Ossetic* (spoken in the Caucasus), *Kurdish* (spoken by the mountaineers of the border land between Persia, Turkey, and Russia), *Afghan* (or *Pushto*), the language of *Bokhara*, are all clearly related to Sanskrit and Persian, but it has not yet been decided to which group they severally belong.

13. All the Indo-European languages are descended from one common stock; that is to say, all the Indo-European languages are dialects of an old and primitive tongue which no longer exists.

The people who spoke this tongue must have lived together as one great community more than three thousand years ago. The home of the people who spoke the common Indo-European language is uncertain. Until recently it was considered that the north-eastern part of the Iranian table-land, near the Hindu-Kush mountains, was the original abode of this primitive people. Of late years many scholars have brought arguments in favour of the north or east of Europe. By the aid of Comparative Philology we find that it is possible to classify and arrange the *phonetic differences* of the various Indo-European languages, and to reduce them to certain rules, so that we are enabled to determine what sound in one language corresponds to that of another.¹

Philological research has found "that the primitive tribe which spoke the mother-tongue of the Indo-European family was not nomadic alone, but had settled habitations, even towns and fortified places, and addicted itself in part to the rearing of cattle, in part to the cultivation of the earth. It possessed our chief domestic animals—the horse, the ox, the sheep, the goat, and the swine, besides the dog; the bear and the wolf were foes that ravaged its flocks; the mouse and fly were already its domestic pests.

¹ Rask first discovered, and Grimm afterwards worked out, the law which governs the permutation of consonants; hence it is always known as Grimm's Law.

"The region it inhabited was a varied one, not bordering upon the ocean. The season whose name has been most persistent is the winter. Barley, and perhaps also wheat, was raised for food, and converted into meal. Mead was prepared from honey, as a cheering and inebriating drink. The use of certain metals was known; whether iron was one of these admits of question. The art of weaving was practised; wool and hemp, and possibly flax, being the materials employed. Of other branches of domestic industry little that is definite can be said; but those already mentioned imply a variety of others, as co-ordinate or auxiliary to them. The weapons of offence and defence were those which are usual among primitive peoples—the sword, spear, bow, and shield. Boats were manufactured, and moved by oars. Of extended and elaborate political organization no traces are discoverable, the people was doubtless a congeries of petty tribes, under chiefs and leaders rather than kings, and with institutions of a patriarchal cast, among which the reduction to servitude of prisoners taken in war appears not to have been wanting.

"The structure and relations of the family are more clearly seen; names of its members, even to the second and third degrees of consanguinity and affinity, were already fixed, and were significant of affectionate regard and trustful interdependence. That woman was looked down upon as a being in capacity and dignity inferior to man we find no indication whatever."

"The art of numeration was learned, at least up to a hundred; there is no general Indo-European word for 'thousand.' Some of the stars were noticed and named. The moon was the chief measurer of time."

"The religion was polytheistic, a worship of the personified powers of nature. Its rites, whatever they were, were practised without the aid of a priesthood."

—WHITNEY.

14. Next to the Indo-European the most important family of languages is the **Semitic**, sometimes called the *Syro-Arabian* family, of which the chief divisions are as follows :—

- (a) The *Northern* or *Aramaic*, comprehending
 - (1) The *Syriac* (ancient and modern); (2) the dialect commonly miscalled *Chaldee*, found in parts of the Bible and the *Targum*.
- (b) The *Assyrian* and *Babylonian*.
- (c) The *Central* or *Canaanitic*, including (1) *Hebrew*, *Phœnician*, *Samaritan*, and *Carthaginian* or *Punic*.
- (d) The *Southern* or *Arabic*, comprehending, (1) *Arabic* and *Maltese*; (2) *Himyaritic* (once spoken in the S.W. of the peninsula of Arabia), and the *Amharic* and other *Abyssinian* dialects; (3) the *Ethiopic* or *Geez* (the ancient language of *Abyssinia*).

It has not yet been shown that the Semitic languages, although inflexional, are historically connected with the Indo-European family.

It has not been decided whether the *Hamitic* family containing, (1) the ancient *Egyptian* and *Coptic*; (2) *Galla*; (3) *Jerber*; (4) *Hottentot* &c., have any historical connection with the *Semitic*.

15. The other languages of the world fall into various groups.

A.—The **Ural-Altai** or **Finno-Tatar**, comprehending, (1) Hungarian; (2) Finnish and Lappish; (3) the Samoyed dialects; (4) Turkish and its dialects; (5) Mongolian dialects; (6) Tungustan dialects (as Manchu).

B.—I. The *Dravidian* or *Tamulic* (including *Tamul*, *Telegu*, *Malabar*, *Canaries*). II. The languages of N.E. Asia (including the dialects of *Corea*, the *Kuriles*, *Kamchatka*, &c.). III. *Japanese*, and dialect of *Loc-Choo*. IV. *Malay-Polynesian* or Oceanic languages (comprehending the dialects of *Malacca*, *Java*, *Sumatra*, *Melanesia*, &c.). V. The *Caucasian* dialects (*Georgian*, &c.).

C.—*South African dialects*.

A, B, and C are agglutinative in their structure, but have no historical connection with each other.

D.—I. *Chinese*. II. The language of *Further India* (the *Siamese*, *Burmese*, *Annamese*, *Cambodian*, &c.). III. *Thibetan*.

These are monosyllabic or isolating in structure.

E.—I. *Basque*. II. The aboriginal languages of North and South America—all polysynthetic in structure.

CHAPTER II

GENERAL PHONETICS

16. *Speech-Sounds* are produced by the organs of speech, *i.e.* a kind of wind-instrument in which the vibratory apparatus is supplied by the *vocal-chords* (ligaments that are stretched across the wind-pipe), while the outer tube, or tubes, through which the waves of sound pass, are furnished by the different configurations of the mouth.

The vocal chords have four different positions :—

- (1) They may be kept apart so as to let the breath expelled from the lungs pass through without producing any sound ; this is the position of *breathing*.
- (2) The chords may be brought together so as to vibrate ; they produce *voice*.
- (3) The chords may be so far brought together that the passing breath expelled from the lungs causes a friction on the chords ; this friction produces *whisper*.
- (4) The chords may be closed so as to allow no breath to pass.

VOWELS.

17. If the mouth-passage is left so open as not to cause audible friction, and voiced breath is sent through, we have *vowels*. But as every alteration in the shape of the mouth

produces a different vowel, the quality of vowels depends partly on the position of the tongue, partly on that of the lips. We distinguish three horizontal positions, or degrees of retraction of the tongue: *back*, when the root of the tongue is drawn back, as in the *a* of *father*; *front*, when the fore part of the tongue is advanced, as in the *e* of *men*; *mixed*, when the tongue is left in its neutral position, intermediate between back and front as in the *u* of *murmur*.

According to the degree of height, we distinguish three vertical positions of the tongue: *high*, when the tongue is raised as close to the palate as is possible without making the vowel into a consonant, as in the *i* of *fit*; *low*, when the tongue is farthest from the palate as in the *a* of *father*; *mid*, when it is in the middle between *high* and *low*, as in the *e* of *bed*.

Each of the vowels formed by the different combinations of retraction and height is either *close* or *open*, according to the degree of openness of the mouth-passage. Thus *a* in *man* is *open*, *a* in *mane* is *close*. If the lip-opening is narrowed while the tongue is in a certain position, the resulting vowel is said to be *rounded*, as the *a* in *fall*.

The combination of these four elements gives 36 primary vowels, of which, however, only some occur in Modern English, as shown in the following table¹ :—

¹ Sweet, *A Primer of Spoken English*, p. 5.

CLOSE.			OPEN.		
high-back	high-mixed	high-front	high-back	high-mixed	high-front. city
mid-back come	mid-mixed	mid-front	mid-back father	mid-mixed island	mid-front men
low-back	low-mixed	low-front	low-back	low-mixed ow : how	low-front man
CLOSE-ROUNDED.			OPEN-ROUNDED.		
high-back	high-mixed	high-front	high-back put	high-mixed	high-front
mid-back	mid-mixed	mid-front	mid-back no	mid-mixed follow	mid-front
low-back saw	low-mixed	low-front	low-back not	low-mixed	low-front.

Taking moreover into consideration that vowels are distinguished by quantity, as *long* and *short*, and the long ones again as *monophthongs*, that is simple vowels, and *diphthongs*, that is, two vowels uttered with one impulse of stress, we arrive at the following vowels in Modern English:

I. Short vowels:

Ordinary Spelling.	Phonetic Symbol.	Instances.
o, ou	ʊ	brother, mother, son; blush, dust, such; enough, touch, tough.
a, e, i, o, ou, u in unaccented syllables	ɒ	again, attend, a man, at home; China, breakfast, agreeable; September, children; horrible, possible; oblige, occasion; emperor, orator; colour, vapour; fortune, pleasure.
i, y, e, o, u, ui	ɪ	bill, if, sin; fifty; England; women; busy; build.
a, e, u, ai, ay, ea, ei, ie, eo	ə	many, any; bed, red; bury; against; said; says; breast, health; heifer; friend; leopard, jeopardy.
a	ɔ	man, have, shall.
oo, o, u, ou	u	hoof, rook; bosom, wolf, woman; bull, full, pull; could, should, would.
a, o (ou), (ow)	o	swan, was; borrow, hollow; hough; knowledge.

II. Long vowels and diphthongs¹:

¹ The long vowels and diphthongs have not been separated in this table, because some differences exist in the pronunciation of educated Englishmen. The diphthongs represented by ai, au, oi, are universal; but many persons use simple long vowels, or long vowels followed by a slight glide, in place of the diphthongs here denoted by ei, ou. The pronunciation here indicated is that of London, and some minor distinctions of vowel-quality are neglected; more precise information must be sought in works on phonetics.

Ordinary Spelling.	Phonetic Symbol	Instances.
a, ea, au	aa	far, star; heart, ^h earken; laugh, draught.
e, ea, i œ, u	æ	fern, herd; earn, learn; birth, dirt; word, worse; first, curse.
a, au, aw, o, oa, ou (ow)	o	all, warm; baulk, slaughter; brawn, ^o wn; broth, frost; broad, board; ought, thought; (towards).
a, ai, ay, ea, ei, ey (ae, au)	ei	blade, take; main, rain; clay, hay; break, steak; eight, neigh; they, wey; gaol; gauge.
a, ai, e, ea, ei	œ	bae, pare; fair, pair; there, where; bear, pear; heir, their.
ee, ea, e, ei, ie (ay, ey, eo)	ij	bee, flee; east, tea; be, even; fiend, priest; conceit, seize; key; quay; people.
i, y, ei, ey (ai, ay)	ai	bide, tide; lye, rye; either, height; eye; aisle; aye.
o, oa, ou, ow (ew)	ou	go, so; foal, o ^o tle; dough, shoulder; bow, glow; saw.
oo, o, ew, ou, u, ui	uw	booth, too; do, who; blew, brew; ousel, you; ruth, truth; bruise, cruise.
ou, ow	au	soul, mouth; cow, sow.
oi, oy	oi	boil, coil; loyal, royal.

CONSONANTS.

18. *Consonants* are produced when the breath expelled from the lungs meets with an obstacle in the throat or mouth.

If the mouth is partly open, the passing breath or voice is obstructed by certain parts of the mouth; thus the *spirants*, as *f, s, z*, and the *trills*, as *r*, are produced.

If the mouth is entirely closed an explosion takes place, when the stoppage is removed; the sounds produced by this explosion, such as *b, p, g, k*, are called *explosives* (*stops, checks*). If the *uvula* is dropped so as to let the breath pass through the nose passage, *nasals*, such as *m* are produced.

According to the part of the mouth where the friction or stoppage takes place, we distinguish again the following groups of consonants:—

(1) *Back or guttural* consonants, such as *k, ch* in the Scotch and German *loch*.

(2) *Front or palatal* formed by the middle of the tongue and the hard palate, such as *y* in *you*.

(3) *Point*, formed by the tip of the tongue and the gums, such as *t, d*, and by the tip of the tongue and the teeth, as *th* in *thin*.

(4) *Blade*, formed by the blade of the tongue—that part of it which is immediately behind the point, such as, *s, z*.

Point and *blade* consonants are also called *dentals*.

(5) *Lip, or labial*, formed by the lips only, such as *p, m*, or by the lip and teeth, such as *f, v*.

Again, bearing in mind, that the breath which produces consonants is either *unvoiced* or *voiced* (see above, § 16), we arrive at the following table of consonants, in which those occurring in Modern English are illustrated by examples:—

	SPIRANTS.		EXPLOSIVES.		
	Unvoiced.	Voiced.	Unvoiced.	Voiced.	Nasal.
1. Throat					
2. Root of tongue and soft palate	h { ch (in Scotch) loch } k	g	ng (king)
3. Middle of tongue and hard palate	v (you)
4. Tip of tongue and hard palate	r
5. Tip of tongue and gums	l	...	d	n
6. Tip of tongue and edge of teeth	th (breath)	th (breathe)
7. Blade of tongue and teeth	s (sin)	z (zeal)
8. Blade and hard palate, with tip of tongue raised	sh (sharp)	zh (pleasure)
9. Lower lip and upper teeth	v	...	b	m
10. Upper and lower lips	p
11. Lips rounded, with back of the tongue raised	wh	w

19. The following list will serve to show the inconsistency of the present system of spelling with regard to consonants:—

Ordinary Spelling.	Phonetic Symbols	Instances
h	h	hall, hunt
ch	χ	loch, Scotch
c, cc, ck, ch, k, qu, gh	k	call, sceptic accuse deck, luck chaos, anchor, stomach keen, book quoit, conquer, picturesque rough, lough
g, gg, gh, gu	g	garden, bag dagger, egg ghostly, ghost guard, plague
ng, n	ŋ	long, singer, think
y, i, j, h, e	j	yet, you million, onion hallelujah hue, human Europe, ewe
ch, tch, t(e), t	tʃ	chaff, beech catch, witch countess creature, nature
j, g, dg(e), d(i), d	dʒ	jar, jewel gem, giant, age edge, ridge soldier verdure
r, rr, rh, rrh	r	rag, rob, barrel, sorry rhomb, rhythm catarrh
l, ll	l	lame, all, tall
t, tt, th, d	t	tell, hot matter, batter Thames, Thomas asked, dressed

Ordinary Spelling.	Phonetic Symbols.	Instances.
d, dd	d	{ dog, bad adder, add
n, nn, gn, kn	n	in, inn, gnome, know
th	þ	thank, method, bath
th	ʰ	{ than, the, though, father, with, bathe
s, ss, sc, c, sch, ps	s	{ sand, absurd disobey house, use dissect, glass scene, scent cell, place schism psalm, psychology
z, zz, s, ss, sc, x	z	{ zeal, haze buzz, buzzard easy, rosy, ways dessert, possess discern Xerxes
sh, s(i), s, ss(i), ss, sc(i), t(i), c(i), c(e), ch	ʃ	{ sharp, ash Persia, conversion sure, sugar confession, passion tissue conscience nation, patient ancient, social ocean chagrin, machine
s(i), z, (ge)	ʒ	{ confusion, occasion composure, pleasure azure (rouge)
f, ff, ph, gh	f	{ fall, life offer, off philology, hyphen cough, enough

Ordinary Spelling.	Phonetic Symbols.	Instances.
v, f, ph	v	<div> <div>vale, live</div> <div>of</div> <div>nephew, Stephen</div> </div>
p, pp, (ph)	p	<div> <div>pan, gap</div> <div>happy</div> <div>(diph)hong, naphtha¹</div> </div>
b, bb, pb	b	<div> <div>baby, grab</div> <div>bubble, ebb</div> <div>cupboard</div> </div>
m, mm	m	my, am, hammer

The ancient Latin grammarians (translating Greek terms) called the unvoiced stops (p, t, k) *tenues* (literally "thin" sounds), and the voiced stops (b, g, d) *mediae* (because they supposed them to stand midway between the *tenues* and the aspirates; see § 20). These terms will occasionally be used in the following chapter. Some other synonymous designations, as *hard* and *soft*, *sharp* and *flat*, are common in English grammars, but are not employed in this work.

20. Certain classes of consonant-sounds, which were not referred to in § 18, require to be mentioned here, in order to render intelligible what is said in the next chapter.

Aspirates are sounds consisting of explosives accompanied or followed by an emission of breath; they may be approximately represented by the sounds of the italicized pairs of letters in the words *cabhorse*, *woodhouse*, *bighorn*; *Lsphook*, *sweetheart*, *blockhead*; those resembling the first three being *voiced aspirates*, while those resembling the last three are *unvoiced aspirates*. The ancient Greek φ, θ, χ were unvoiced aspirates; but because in late Greek these letters came to be pronounced *f*, *th* (as in *thin*), *ch* (as in *loch*), the name of aspirates has often been erroneously given to the latter sounds, which are properly called *spirants*.

¹ But many persons pronounce *f*.

Affricates are complex sounds produced by beginning to pronounce an explosive and changing it into a spirant. English has two affricates, *ch* in *church* (tʃ) and *j* in *judge* (dʒ); modern German has *pf* and *z* (pronounced ts).

Some explanation is necessary with regard to the use of certain letters in the following chapter to denote sounds in other languages than English. In the spelling of words of the Primitive Teutonic language, *j* is used (as in the phonetic notation given above) for the consonant which begins the word *you*; but in writing Sanskrit and Primitive Aryan words this sound is expressed by *y*. In Sanskrit words the letters *c* and *j* denote respectively unvoiced and voiced palatal stops, but the English affricates *ch* (tʃ) and *j* (dʒ) are near enough to the correct sounds to be used instead.

CHAPTER III

THE TEUTONIC LANGUAGES

21. WHEN we compare the various Teutonic dialects, we find certain characteristics which show that they have a common origin, and by which they are distinguished from the other branches of the Aryan languages. The study of these dialects in their older forms has enabled scholars to reconstruct inferentially, with a considerable approach to certainty, the vocabulary and grammar of the **Primitive Teutonic** language, from which they have all been developed by gradual divergent changes. Similarly, the comparison of Primitive Teutonic with Keltic, Slavonic, Latin, Greek, Sanskrit, &c., has rendered it possible, to some extent, to reconstruct the **Primitive Aryan** tongue, from which all the Indo-European languages descend.

The changes by which Primitive Aryan developed into the different historically known Aryan languages are of three kinds. 1. Alterations in the vowel and consonant sounds of which words are composed. These changes took place with such regularity that if we know the Primitive Aryan form of a word we can usually predict the form in which, if it survived, it will be found in Teutonic, Greek, Latin, or Sanskrit. 2. The loss of ancient grammatical forms, and the development of new ones. 3. Loss of

ancient words, or changes in their meaning; and formation of new words.

In this chapter the phonetic and grammatical features which distinguish the Teutonic from the other Aryan languages will be briefly described.

I.—THE TEUTONIC VOWELS.

22. The Aryan vowel-system, which is best represented by the oldest Greek, was in all probability the following:—

Short vowels: *a, i, e, u, o*;

Long vowels: *ā, ī, ē, ū, ō*;

Diphthongs: *ai, ei, oi, au, eu, ou*.

These vowels are faithfully reflected in the Teutonic languages, only the following changes took place:—

(1) Aryan *ō* became *a*:—Greek *ὄκτώ*, Latin *octo*, Gothic *ahtau*, Old English (*e*)*ahta* (eight); Latin *nox* (from *noct-s*), Gothic *nahts*, German *nacht* (night); Latin *hostis*, Polish *gość*, Gothic *gasts*, German *gast* (guest); Greek *σκóτος*, Gothic *skadus*, German *schatten* (shade).

Note.—Hence also the change of the Aryan diphthong *oi* into *ai*, and of *ou* into *au*:—

Greek *φέποις*, Gothic *bairais* (you may bear); Greek *οἶδα*, Gothic *wait* (I know); Aryan *bhebhoudhe*, Sanskrit *bhubôdha*, Gothic *baup* (I bade); Aryan *rpudhos*, Gothic *rauds* (red).

(2) Aryan *ā* became *ō*:—Latin *māter*, Old English *móder*; Latin *frāter*, Old English *brōþor*; Latin *fāgys*, Old English *bōt* (beow (beech-tree)).

(3) Aryan *ei* became *i* (written *ei* in Gothic):—Greek *λείπειν*, Gothic *leihwan* (read *lihwan*), Old High German *lihan*, German *leihen* (to lend); Greek *δείκνυμι*, Gothic *ga-lihan*, Old High German *zihan*, German *zeihen* (to accuse).

(4) The sonants *r, l, m, n* (i.e., *r, l, m*, and *n* used as vowels) became respectively *ur, ul, um, un*.—Sanskrit *vrka*, Gothic *wulfs* (wolf); Sanskrit *tr̥śús*, Old Norse *þurr* (dry), German *durst* (thirst); Aryan *k̐ntom*, Sanskrit *catām*, Latin *centum*, Gothic *hund* (hundred).

II.—THE TEUTONIC CONSONANTS: GRIMM'S AND VERNER'S LAW.

23. The Teutonic languages differ much more from Primitive Aryan in the consonants than in the vowels.

The Primitive Aryan consonant-system is preserved with considerable exactness in Sanskrit, Greek, Latin, Lithuanian, Old Slavonic, and Old Keltic, though each of these languages has altered some of the original sounds. In Sanskrit, Lithuanian, and Slavonic, the original gutturals have partly become palatals and sibilants. In Greek the voiced aspirates became voiceless, and in Latin they are partly represented by spirants, partly by voiced stops; in Lithuanian, Slavonic, and Keltic they are represented by voiced stops. Keltic always drops an original *p*. Allowing for these and a few other deviations, we may take words from any of the five languages above mentioned as illustrations of the Primitive Aryan system of consonants.

The Primitive Teutonic system of consonants remains, without essential alteration, in Gothic and the early forms of the Low German and Scandinavian languages. The principal changes in consonants characteristic of the development of Teutonic from Primitive Aryan are collectively known as the *First Consonant-Shifting*. In historical times a *Second Consonant-Shifting* (§ 26) took place, by which certain Primitive Teutonic consonants were changed in the High German dialects, so that, for instance, if a word begins with *t* in Gothic or Low German, the High German form of it will begin with *z* (pronounced *ts*):

The most important of the consonant-changes by which Primitive Aryan was developed into Teutonic are summed up in two formulæ, called, from the names of their discoverers, Grimm's and Verner's Law.

24. **Grimm's Law** which, was stated by its discoverer in a form no longer admitted as correct, may (so far as it relates to the First Consonant-Shifting) be expressed as follows:

Aryan voiced aspirates became voiced spirants, which afterwards mostly developed into voiced stops; Aryan voiced stops became unvoiced stops; Aryan unvoiced stops became unvoiced spirants.

(1) The Aryan voiced aspirates *bh*, *dh*, *gh*, first became voiced spirants, and these when initial, afterwards developed into the voiced stops *b*, *d*, *g*. Instances: Sanskrit *bhârâmi*, Greek *φέρω*, Gothic *bairu* (I bear); Sanskrit *dhvâr* from *dghvar*, Greek *θύρα*, Gothic *dur* (door); Greek *στέιχ*, Gothic *steiga* (I ascend).

When not initial, the Teutonic voiced spirants generally remained such. Thus Aryan *bh* is represented by *v* in the English *cleave* (O.E. *clēofian*, where the *f* was pronounced *v*); the Old English letter *g* when not initial was pronounced as a spirant. And although non-initial Aryan *dh* is represented in English and Low German by *d*, the older sound *ð* remained in Old Norse, as in *míðr* (mid, middle), compare Sanskrit *madhya*; *mjóðr* (mead), compare Sanskrit *mádhu*, Greek *μέθυ*. In Gothic spelling the representatives of the Aryan aspirates appear as *b*, *d*, *g*, whether initial or not; but when non-initial these letters were probably pronounced as spirants.

(2) Voiced stops (mediae) became unvoiced, that is, *b*, *d*, *g*, became *p*, *t*, *k*. Instances: Latin *tribus*, Gothic *þairp*

(thorp); Greek καρδία, Gothic *hairtô* (heart); Greek ἔργον, O.E. *weorc* (work).

(3) Voiceless stops (tenses) became voiceless spirants, that is Aryan *p, t, k* became, in Teutonic, *f, þ, h* (pronounced like *ch* in Scotch *loch*). Instance: Greek πούς, Latin *pes*, Gothic *fōtus*, O.E. *fōt* (foot); Latin *frater*, Gothic *brōþar*, O.E. *brōðor* (brother); Latin *cornu*, Gothic *hairn*, O.E. *horn*.

Exceptions.—The combinations *sp, sk, st*, remained unchanged; and *pt, kt* became *ft, ht* respectively.

25. **Verner's Law.**—At a later period, but while the accent still fell on the same syllables as in Primitive Aryan (see § 29), the voiceless spirants just mentioned, when immediately following or terminating an originally unaccented syllable, became voiced spirants, which afterwards were treated in the same way as the older voiced spirants mentioned in (1). Hence the Aryan *p, t, k* are in Gothic represented by *f, þ, h* when initial or immediately following the original accent, but in any other position by *b, d, g*. This rule is called Verner's Law. Instances: Sanskrit *sapīdan*, Greek ἑπτά, Gothic *sibun*. Sanskrit *pitār*, Greek πατήρ, Gothic *fadar*; Sanskrit *catvāras*, Latin *quattuor*, Gothic *fīdwōr* (four); Greek δεκάς, Gothic *tigus* (the number ten), compare Greek δέκα, Gothic *taihun*.

The Aryan spirant *s* and its development belong here. According to Verner's Law it became voiced under the same conditions as *f, þ, h*, that is, *s* became first *z*, then *r*, when the next preceding vowel had not the 'stress.' Instances: Sanskrit *śaśā* (for **śasā*), O.E. *hara* (hare); Gothic *mai-za*, O.E. *māra* (more), Gothic *bat-iza*, O.E. *bet(e)ra* (better),¹ Gothic *ausō*, O.E. *ēare* (ear).

¹ The comparative had in Aryan the stress on the ending.

Verner's Law explains also two grammatical points, namely the change of (*f*), *th*, *h*, *s* and (*b*), *d*, *g*, *r* in

- (a) the singular and plural preterite of strong verbs.
- (b) intransitive and causal verbs.

(a) Of the O.E. verb *secan* (to seethe) we have the singular preterite *ic seað* (I seethed) with a *th*, but the plural preterite and participle past with a *d*, we *sudon* (we seethed), *soden* (seethed). This is accounted for by the fact that in Aryan, the singular preterite was accented on the stem, the plural preterite and participle past on the ending. Compare Sanskrit *vavāṛta* (he turned), *vavṛtānā* (we turned), *vavṛtānā* (turned). In O.E. the verb *weorðan* (to become), which answers exactly to the Sanskrit verb *vardāmi*, therefore has

weorð (I became)
wurdon (we became)
worden (become).

Other instances :—

snidan (to cut), *snáð* (I cut), *snidon* (we cut), *sniden* (cut).
wreón (to cover), *wréa* (I covered), *wrigon* (we covered), *wrigen* (covered).
céosan (to choose), *céas* (I choose), *curon* (we chose), *cōren* (chosen).

(b) In Primitive Teutonic causals were formed out of intransitive verbs by means of the suffix *-jan*, as in Gothic *reisan* (to rise) and *raisjan* (to raise). But when we look at the Old English form of the causal belonging to *risen* (to rise), we find *ræran* (to rear) with an *r*. This change is accounted for by the fact that, in Aryan, the causals were accented on the ending, not on the stem.

Other examples :—

Lidan (to go), *lidan* (to make go, to lead) ; Gothic *nasjan* (to save), Old E. *narjan* ; Gothic *halsjan* (to praise), Old E. *herian*.

26. High German Consonants.—From the sixth to the eighth century, a number of unconnected consonant-changes took place in High German, the results of which form the most striking difference between the High German and the other Teutonic dialects. These changes are collectively known as the *Second Consonant-Shifting*, and the laws by which they are regulated are commonly spoken of as forming part of Grimm's Law, because they were included in the formula of that Law as originally framed.

In the statement of Grimm's Law given by Grimm himself, and unfortunately still repeated in most English books on philology, a delusive appearance of simplicity is given to these High German changes. The Second Consonant-Shifting is made to seem as if it consisted in a repetition of the same process of development by which the Aryan became the Teutonic consonant-system. The change from early Teutonic to High German, like the change from Aryan to Teutonic, was supposed to be reducible to the following formula: "Aspirates became mediae; mediae became tenues; tenues became aspirates." The only instance in which this formula perfectly corresponds with fact is that of the Teutonic media *ɖ*, which did become the High German tenuis *t*. The semblance of regularity in the law as originally stated is due to the confusion of aspirates with spirants and affricates. But even when these three classes of consonants were regarded as mutually equivalent, there remained many cases in which the rule conspicuously failed, e.g. the High German *haus* (house) ought, according to Grimm's Law as often stated, to begin with *g*, and *feld* (field) with *ð*. In fact no High German dialect of any period ever changed a Teutonic *f* or *h* into voiced stops; the instances that used to be quoted of such a change in the middle or end of words are now differently explained.

It would be out of place here to give the details of the Second Consonant-Shifting in the various Old High German dialects. The following rules will enable the student to recognize the modern German etymological equivalents of English words.

Old English *p, t, k* after vowels correspond to Ger. *f, ss, ch*; in other positions to *pf, z, k*.

Some O.H.G. dialects had *ch* for the modern *k*; the modern *ch* in the middle of words was anciently written *hh*.

Old English *f, ð, h* correspond to Ger. *f* (or *v*), *d*, *h*. But O.E. *f* at the end of a word often stands for a Teutonic voiced spirant, and then corresponds to Ger. *b*, as in *leaf* = Ger. *laub*.

English *v* (written *f* in O.E.) corresponds to Ger. *b*.

Old English *d* corresponds to Ger. *t*. Old English *b, g* correspond to Ger. *b* (occasionally *p*) and *g*.

In the Alemannic and Bavarian dialects of O.H.G., the tenues *p, t, k* usually appear where O.E. has *b, g, d*.

The O.E. doubled consonants

pp, tt, cc, bb, dd, gg (= *gg*) *ff, ðð, hh*

correspond to the German

pf, tz, ck, pp, tt, ck, ff, tt, ch.

27. The subjoined "Illustrations of Grimm's and Verner's Law" will in general be intelligible from what has been said in §§ 23-26. One or two points, however, need to be observed in explanation of certain seeming irregularities.

(1) Both Sanskrit and Greek have a phonetic law which prohibits the occurrence of two aspirates in the same root. Hence, if an Aryan root both begins and ends with voiced aspirates, the initial will be represented in Sanskrit by a media (voiced stop), and in Greek by a tenuis (unvoiced stop).

(2) The Aryan language had a group of sounds in which (either originally or by a subsequent development in some of the dialects) there was a mixture of guttural and labial utterance. These are represented in Sanskrit by gutturals, palatals, or sibilants; in Greek they are variously rendered (chiefly according to the nature of the adjacent vowel) by gutturals, labials, or dentals; and in Teutonic chiefly by gutturals, sometimes followed by *w*. For examples see III., VIII., IX. of the following tables.

ILLUSTRATIONS OF GRIMM'S AND VERNER'S LAW.

I. Sansk. *bh* ; Gr. *φ* ; Lat. *f* (*b*) ; Goth. *b* ; Ger. *b* (O. H. G. *b*, *þ*).

Sanskrit.	Greek.	Latin.	Gothic.	Ger.	English.
Zend. <i>bar</i> (= <i>bhar</i>) to <i>ābre</i>	—	frangere forare	brikan	brechen bohren	break. bore.
<i>bhrātṛ</i>	φρατήρ	frater	brōþar	bruder	brother.
<i>bhar</i>	φέρω	fero	baira	O. H. G. <i>biru</i>	I bear.
<i>budhna</i> (= <i>bbudh- na</i>) depth	πυθμήν	fundus.	—	boden (O. H. G. bodam)	bottom.
<i>bāhu</i> (= <i>bhāhu</i>), arm	πῆχυς	—	—	bug	bough.
<i>bhuj</i> (to bend)	φτερυγία	fugio	biugan	biegen	bow (O. E. <i>bū- gan</i>).
<i>nābhas</i>	νεφέλη	nebula	nībls	nebel	beech.
—	φηγός	fagus	—	buche	be (O. E. <i>béom</i>).
<i>bhu</i>	φύω	fu-i.	—	bi-n	—

IL Sansk. *dh* ; Gr. *θ* ; Lat. *f* (*d*, *b*) ; Goth. *d* ; Ger. *t*,

Sanskrit.	Greek.	Latin.	Gothic.	Ger.	English.
dubhit	δωγάτηρ	—	dauhtar	tochter	daughter.
dvāra (= dhvāra)	θύρα	fores	daur	tor	door.
dhā	τίθημι	do in con-do, &c.	—	thun	do.
—	θέμις	—	dōms	—	doom.
dhū (to shake, blow)	θύω, θύελλα, θυμός	fumus, suf-fio	dauns (sirell)	O. H. G. tunist (storm)	dust.
dhar (to support)	θράνος (bench)	firms	—	—	—
dhars	θαρσεῖν	fortis	ga-daursan	O. H. G. gi-tar (I dare)	dare, durst.
dhāto carry home a pledge)	δέθλον (δέφεθλον)	vas (vac-is)	wāli	wette	O. E. wed (pledge).
dindh (to burn)	αἶθω	astas, ædes	—	O. H. G. eit (fire)	O. E. æd. (a funeral pile).
madhya	μέστος (from me thyos)	medius	midja	mitte	mid-dle, midst.
rudhira (blood)	ρυθρός	ruber, rufus	rauds	roth	red.

- III. Sansk. *gh* (*jh*); { Gr. ϕ , θ , χ ; Lat. *f*, *b*, *g*, *v*, Goth. *w* (for *sw*), *g*; Ger. *w*, *g*.
 • Gr. χ ; Lat. *h* (*g*); Goth. *g*; Ger. *g*.
 • Sansk. *h*; Gr. χ ; Lat. *h*, *g*; Goth. *g*; Ger. *g*.

gharma	θερμός.....	formus	—	warm	warm.
ghas (to eat) ..	—	hostis, hospes ..	gasts	gast	guest.
—	χέω	—	giutan	giessen	O. E. géotian (to pour).
hansa	χην	anser (= hanser)	gans	gans	goose.
haryāmi (I love).	χαίρω	gratus	gains (greetly) ..	gern (gladly) ..	yearn.
—	χόρος	co-fiors, hortus...	gards (house)....	garten	garden, yard, orchard (= ort-yard).
hyas	χθές.....	heri, hesternus..	gistra	gestern	yester-day.
—	—	trahere	dragan	tragen	draw.
—	νίφα (accus.) ..	ningūit, nivēm ..	snaivs	schnee (O. H. G. snéo, gen. snéwes)	snow.
vah (to carry)	ῥχος.....	vehere	wigs (way)	wagen (carriage), weg (way) ..	wain (O. E. wagn), way (O. E. weg).
sigh (to mount).	στείχω	—	stegan (to go up)	steigen	O. E. stige (stye).

IV. Sansk. *ḥ*; Gr. *β*; Lat. *h*; Goth. *þ*; Ger. *f*.¹

Sanskrit.	Greek.	Latin.	Gothic.	Ger.	English.
—	καυκαβίς,	—	O.N. hanpr.....	hanf	hemp.
kubja (crooked).	κύβος,	cubare	hups	huf... ..	hip, hump.

¹ The initial *ḥ* for Aryan *h* is rare in Teutonic words. In Sans., Gr., and Lat. *h* has been developed from other sounds.

V. Sansk. *ḍ*; Gr. *δ*; Lat. *d* later changed into *t*; Goth. *t*; O. H. Ger. *z* (Ger. *ss*, *z*).

—	δακρυ.....	lacruma (= da- cruma, duo	tagr	zahre.....	tear.
dva.....	δίω.....	sudare	twai,	zwei	two-twin.
svid (to sweat).....	σῖψ.....	sudare	sweitan... ..	O. H. G. swizzan.	to sweat.

daean	δέκα.	decem	tahun	zehn (O. H. G. zehan)	ten, tihe.
elant	ἑλάντ (ἐλάντος)	dens	tunþus	zahn (O. H. G. zand)	tooth (O. E. tóp = tonþ).
svádu	ἡδύς.	suāvis (= suād-vis)	sutis	suss.	sweet (O. E. swót).
ead	ἔδεν.	edere	itan	essen	eat.
viſt	εἶδεν ὁἰδα.	videre	witan	wissen	wit (wot, wist).
dam	δαμάω.	domare	tamjan	zahmen	tame.
dama (house).	δόμος	domus	timrian (to build)	gimmer	timber.
druma (wood)	δρῦς, δόρυ, δένδρον	—	triu	—	tree.
dar (year)	δέρω	—	tairan	zehren	tear.
diſ (to show)	δείκνυμι	dicō	teihan	zeihen (to accuse)	O. E. féon.
nāda (nest)	—	nidus	—	nest	nest.
—	καρία	cor (cordis)	hairtó	herza	heart.
páda	πούς (ποδός)	pēs (pedis)	fōtus	fuss	foot.
ud-a	ὑδωρ	unda	wató	wasser	water.
—	ρίζα, βρίζα	radix	waurts	O. H. G. wurza	O. E. wārt (herb, plant; cp. colé-wort, cabbage plant).

VI. Sanskrit, &c, p; Goth. f (by Verner's Law b); Ger. f or v (by Verner's Law b).

Sanskrit	Greek.	Latin.	Gothic.	Ger.	English.
pancan	πέμπε (πέμπε)...	quinque pinque	finf	funf	five.
pûrnâ	πῦρ	pînus	fulls	full	full.
piti	πατήρ	pater	faðar	vater	father (O. E. fader).
upari	ὑπέρ	super	ufar	uber	over.
apa (away)	ἀπό	ab	af	ab	off, off.
parâ (away)	παρά	per	fra	ver	for.
par (to bring over)	πέραν, πόρος (passage)	porta (gate), exterior ¹	faran	fahren	fare.
pu (to please, to love)	πρᾶς	—	frijen	freund, freuen (to be glad)	friend (O. E. fréon, to love).
pat-tra (wing), from pat, to fly	πτερόν, πτερομα...	penna (= pesna), peto	—	feder	feather (= fether).
—	—	paucus	faws	O.H.G. foh	few (O. E. féa-wa).
prâc (ask)	—	precor	frainnan, fragan.	fragen	O. E. fregnan.

¹ Cp. Lat. *periculum*; Ger. *gefähr*; Ger. *wohlgefahrt*; Gr. *εὐνοπία*.

VII. Sansk. *t*; Goth. *p* (by Verner's Law *d*); Ger. *d* (by Verner's Law *t*).

tvam	तु	pu	du	thou (O. E. þu).
tam (acc.)	is-tum, ta-lis, ta-m	tha-na	den	the (thi-s, tha-t).
tri	tres	preis	drei	three.
antara	—	anþar	ander	other (= on-ther)
—	tolerō	þulan	gulden (O. H. G. <i>gólén</i>)	thole (suffer).
tan (stretch)	tendo	þanja (extendo) ..	dehnēn	O. E. þenian.
tanus (thin)	tenuis	O. N. þunnr (thin) ..	dunn	thin.
tu (be powerful) ..	totus, tatus, tuta (city)	þiuda (people) ..	O. H. G. diot	O. E. þeod.
taish	torreo	þaisan	durstēn	to thirst.
kratu (power)	—	hardus	hart	hard.

VIII. Sansk. *k*, *c*; Gr. *π*, *τ*, *κ*; Lat. *qu*, *c*; Goth. *hw*, *h*, (by Verner's Law *w*, *g*); Ger. *w* (for *hw*), *h* (by Verner's Law *g*); Sansk. *ç*; Gr. *κ*; Lat. *c*; Goth. *h* (by Verner's Law *g*); Ger. *h* (by Verner's Law *g*).

Sanskrit.	Greek.	Latin.	Gothic.	Ger.	English.
<i>kapāla</i>	—	<i>Caput</i>	<i>hauþip</i>	<i>haupt</i>	head (O.E. <i>hēafod</i> , M.E. <i>heved</i>).
<i>kas</i> , - <i>cid</i> (= <i>kva</i>)	<i>πός</i> , <i>κός</i> , <i>τίς</i>	<i>quis</i>	<i>hwa-s</i>	<i>wer</i>	who (O.E. <i>hwa</i>)
<i>paçu</i>	—	<i>pecus</i>	<i>faihu</i>	<i>vieh</i>	fee (O.E. <i>feoh</i>), cattle.
—	<i>ὀκός</i> = <i>ὀ-πός</i> , gen. of <i>ὀψ</i>	<i>oc-ulus</i>	<i>augô</i>	<i>auge</i>	eye (O.E. <i>éage</i>).
<i>çvaçura</i>	<i>καρδία</i> , <i>ἐκρός</i>	<i>cor (cordis)</i>	<i>hairtô</i>	<i>herz</i>	heart.
<i>çāla</i> (house)	—	<i>socer</i>	<i>swahra</i>	<i>schwäher</i>	J.E. <i>sw-fo</i> r.
<i>ççi</i> (to lie)	<i>καλία</i>	<i>cella, domicilium</i>	—	—	hall.
—	<i>κείμεναι</i>	<i>quies, civ-is</i>	<i>haims (vil'age)</i>	<i>heim</i>	home (O.E. <i>hām</i>).
<i>çvan</i>	<i>κλέπτω</i> , <i>κλέπτης</i>	<i>clepo</i>	<i>hlifan (to steal)</i>	—	shop-lifter (O.E. <i>lift</i> , to steal).
<i>çveta</i> (white)	<i>κύων</i> , <i>κύωνίς</i>	<i>canis</i>	<i>hunþs</i>	<i>hund</i>	hound.
—	—	—	<i>hweits</i>	<i>weiss</i>	white.

IX. Sansk. *ṛ*, *j*; Gr. *γ*, *β*, *δ*; Lat. *g*, *gn*, *v*; Gothic *k*, *q*; Ger. *qu*, *k*, *c*.

go	βοῦς	hos (not regular)	—	kuh	cow.
gam	βαίω	venio	qiman	kommen	come.
jīva (alive)	βίος (līe)	vivus	qius	keck, queck	quick.
jñā	γινῶμι	gnoscō	kunnan	kennen	ken, ³ an, ³ know.
—	—	—	kan	kann	can.
jāti	γένος	genus	kuni	O. H. G. kuni	kin
—	γόνος (offspring).	—	O. Sax. kind	kind	child.
jānu	γόνυ	genu	knīu	knīe	knee.
janī (mother)	γυνή	—	qino, qens	O. H. G. chena	queen.
—	ἐγώ	ego	ik	ich	I (O. E. ³ ie).

Doubling of Consonants or Geminatio.

28. Double consonants are another characteristic of Teutonic in contradistinction to Aryan. In the following words we find single *l*, *m*, *n*, in Aryan, but *ll*, *mm*, *nn*, in Teutonic :—(*ll* developed from Aryan *rn* or *ln*) :—Sanskrit *pūrṇa*, Gothic *fulls* (full), compare Latin *plenus*; Sanskrit *ārnā*, Gothic *wulla* (wool); Old Slovenic *vlěna*, Old High-German *wella* (wave). *mm* (from Aryan *sm*) :—Sanskrit *tasmād*, Gothic *þamma* (dative singular of *sa*, 'the'); Sanskrit *asmāi*, Gothic *imma* (dative singular of *is*, 'he'). *nn* (from Aryan *nu*) :—Greek *μνῦω*, Latin *minuo*, Gothic *minnisa* (least); Latin *tenuis*, Old English *ðynne* (thin).

Apart from these doublings which are of common Teutonic origin, there are others found only in the West-Teutonic languages, which derive from a single consonant followed by *j*, as in *sellan* (to sell), Gothic *saljan*; *settan* (to set), Gothic *satiaþ*; *hebban* (to heave), Gothic *hafjan*; *legg(e)an* (to lay), Gothic *lagjan*.

Note.—The suffix *-jo* thus produces in English causal verbs, not only change of vowel (§ 58) but also doubling of consonants.

III.—ACCENT IN TEUTONIC.

29. In the prehistoric periods of the Teutonic languages the accent was not fixed to certain syllables—e.g., to the first, last, or penultimate of the word, as in Polish and Bohemian, or ruled by the quantity of the vowels, as in Greek and Latin, but as in Sanskrit, and still in Russian, might occupy any position in a polysyllable (of course retaining the same position in the same word). Later on the first syllable became the bearer of the accent in nominal forms (both simple and compound) and in simple verbs.

IV.—DROPPING OF FINAL SOUNDS.

30. It is owing to this change of the accent that certain sounds which were formerly to be found at the end of the word, were either shortened or altogether discarded.

(1) Final *m* was changed into *n*:—Aryan *tom*, Sanskrit *tam*, Latin *istum*, Gothic *þan-a*, German *den* (accusative sg. masc.); Aryan *im*, Sanskrit *im-am*, Gothic *ina* (him, acc.).

This *n* was afterwards dropped:—the ending, which was in Aryan *om*, became in Teutonic *an*, and then was dropped altogether, so that we have *wolf* (acc. sg.) instead of *wolfon* (Latin *lup-um*), *word* instead of *wordom* (Latin *verb-um*).

(2) Final *t* and *d* were dropped:—Latin *velit*, Gothic *wili* (he will); Aryan *bheroit*, Gothic *þairai* (he may bear); Skr. *áyāt*, Gothic *iddja* (he went); Latin *quod*, Gothic *hwa* (what).

(3) The short vowels *a*, *e*, *o*, and *i* in two and three syllabled words, were dropped:—Sanskrit *véttha*, Greek *oístha*, Gothic *waist* (thou knowest); Latin *ego* (from Aryan *egom*), Gothic *ik* (I); Aryan *penge*, Greek *πέντε*, Gothic *fiuf* (five); Greek *ἐμέ-γε*, Gothic *mik*, German *mich* (me); Sanskrit *upári*, Gothic *ufar* (over); Sanskrit *bháranti*, Gothic *þairand* (they bear).

Note.—Teutonic final *s* (when sounded as in *was*) was kept in Gothic, changed into *r* in Old Norse, and dropped in the other Teutonic dialects:—Gothic *wulfs*, Norse *úlfr*, Old English *wulf* (wolf).

The changes undergone by the final sounds in Teutonic explain the Teutonic declension and conjugation in their relation to the other Aryan languages.

V.—GRAMMATICAL FEATURES OF TEUTONIC.

31. The Teutonic languages are marked by the following points of difference from the grammatical system of Primitive Aryan :—

(1) The Aryan Dual of the noun disappeared in Teutonic.

Note.—The Old English nouns *nosu* (nose); *bréost* (breast), and *sculdru* (shoulders) are considered by some scholars to be remnants of the Aryan dual number.

(2) The Imperfect and Aorist Tenses disappeared.

(3) The Preterite of the weak verbs in *-d* (loved) is peculiar to the Teutonic languages.

(4) The Subjunctive was supplanted by another mood which answers to the Greek Optative : Greek *φέποις*, Gothic *bairais* (thou mayest bear).

(5) The Passive disappeared, only Gothic exhibits remnants of it : *haita* (I call), *haitada* (I am called), Old English *hätte* (I am called); Middle English *hight* answers to Gothic *haitada*.

CHAPTER IV

HISTORY OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE

32. We must bear in mind, (1) that English is a member of the Indo-European family; (2) that it belongs to the Teutonic group; (3) that it is essentially a Low German dialect; (4) that it was brought into Britain by wandering tribes from the Continent; (5) that we cannot use the terms English or England in connection with the country before the middle of the fifth century.

33. According to the statements of Bæda, the Teutonic invaders first came over in A.D. 449, and for about 100 years the invasion may be said to have been going on. In the course of time the original Celtic population were displaced by the invading tribes, who became a great nationality, and called themselves Englisc or English. The land they had won they called Engla-land (the land of the Angles) or England.

Bæda makes the Teutonic invaders to consist of three tribes—Angles, Saxons, and Jutes. The Saxons, he tells us, came from what was known in his time as the district of the Old Saxons, the country between the Elbe and the Eider.

The Angles came from the Duchy of Sleswick, and there is still a district in the southern part of the duchy,

between the Slie and the arm of the Baltic, called the Flensburg Fiord, which bears the name *Angeln*.

Bæda places the Jutes to the north of the Angles, that is, probably the upper part of Sleswick or South Jutland.

There were no doubt a considerable proportion of Frisians from Greater and Lesser Friesland. Bæda mentions the Frisians (Fresones) among the natives from whom the Angles were descended:

The settlements are said to have taken place in the following order :—

- I. Jutes, under Hengest and Horsa, who settled in KENT and the Isle of Wight and a part of Hampshire in A.D. 449 or 450.
- II. The first division of the Saxons, under Ella (Ælle) and Cissa, settled in SUSSEX, in 477.
- III. The second body of Saxons, under Cerdic and Cynric, in WESSEX, in 495.
- IV. The third body of Saxons in ESSEX, in 530.
- V. First division of the Angles, in the kingdom of EAST ANGLIA (Norfolk, Suffolk, Cambridgeshire, and parts of Lincolnshire and Northamptonshire).
- VI. The second division of the Angles, under Ida, in the kingdom of Beornicia (situated between the Tweed and the Firth of Forth), in 547.

Two other kingdoms were subsequently established by the Angles—*Deira* (between Tweed and Humber), and *Mercia*,¹ comprehending the Midland counties.

Teutonic tribes were known in Britain, though there is no evidence that they made any settlements before A.D. 449. In the fourth century they made attacks upon the eastern and south-eastern coast of this island, from the Wash to the Isle of Wight, which, on that account, was called "*Littus*

¹ *Mercia*—march or frontier. In Southern and West Mercia the people were of Saxon origin; the others came of an Anglian stock.

Saxonicum," or the Saxon shore; and an officer known as the Count of the Saxon Shore (*Comes Littoris Saxonici per Britannias*) was appointed for its defence. These Teutonic invaders were known to the Romans and Kelts by the name of *Saxons*; and this term was afterwards applied by them to all the Teutonic settlers of the fifth century without distinction. On the other hand, not only Bæda's "Angles," but also his "Saxons" and "Jutes," appear in historical times almost always to have spoken of themselves as *Engle*, and of their language as *Englisc*.

34. The language that was brought into the island by the Low-German settlers was an *inflected* speech, like its congener, modern German. It was, moreover, on the whole, an *unmixed* language, all its words being English. Not a few words, however, were borrowed from the Latin, such as *esol* (*asinus*), *cealc* (*calcem* from *calx*, chalk), *mynet* (*moneta*, mint, coin), *silttere* (*sutor*, shoemaker).

The Old English borrowed but very few words from the original inhabitants. In the oldest English written language, from the ninth to the end of the eleventh century, we find but very few traces of Keltic words, *dry* (wizard), *sacerd* (priest, from Latin *sacerdos*), *brocc* (badger), *bratt* (cloak), *dún* (hill), and a few others.

In our old writers, from the thirteenth century downwards, and in the modern provincial dialects, we find more frequent traces of words of Keltic origin, and a few still exist in modern English.

35. The English were converted to Christianity about A.D. 596, and during the four following centuries many Latin words were introduced by Roman ecclesiastics, and by English writers who translated Latin works into their own language.

This is called the Latin of the *Second Period*. What is

usually designated the Latin of the *First Period* consists of words that were common to most of the Germanic languages, and were brought by the invaders from the Continent, or of such as had been introduced by the Romans, and are only to be found in names of places, as *castra*, a camp, in Don-caster, Chester, &c.

36. Towards the end of the eighth century the Northmen of Scandinavia (*i.e.* of Denmark, Norway and Sweden), who were then without distinction called Danes, ravaged England, Scotland, the Hebrides, and Ireland.

In the ninth century they gained a permanent footing in England, and subdued the kingdoms of Northumbria, East Anglia, and Mercia.

In the eleventh century Danish sovereigns were established on the English throne for nearly thirty years.

Chronologically the facts are as follows :—

In 787 three ships of Northmen appeared and made an attack upon the coast of Dorsetshire.

In 832 the Danes ravaged Sheppey in Kent.

In 833 thirty-five ships came to Charmouth in Dorsetshire, and Egbert was defeated by the Danes.

In 835 the Welsh and Danes were defeated by Egbert at Hengestesdun.

In 855 the Danes wintered in Sheppey.

In 866 they wintered in East Anglia.

In 868 they got into Mercia as far as Nottingham, and in 870 they invaded East Anglia.

In 871 the eastern part of Wessex was invaded by the Danes.

In 874 the Danes entered Lincolnshire.

In 876 they made settlements in Northumbria.

In 878 Alfred concluded a treaty with Guthorm or

Guthrum, the Danish chief, and formally ceded to the invaders all Northumberland and East Anglia, most part of Essex, and the north-east part of Mercia.

In 991 the Norwegians invaded the east coast of England and plundered Ipswich; they were defeated at the battle of Maldon. Before 1000 Danes had settled in Cumberland.¹

In 1013 Svein, King of Denmark, conquered England; and between the years 1013 and 1042 a Danish dynasty ruled over England.

37. The Danish and English are allied tongues, and consequently there is an identity of roots, so that it is by no means an easy matter to detect the Danish words that have found their way into English.

In the literature of the tenth and eleventh centuries we find but few traces of Danish, and what little there is probably dates chiefly from the time of the Danish rule (1013 — 1042) and is mostly found in the Anglo-Saxon chronicles and laws. Such words are:—*callian* (call), O.N. *kalla*, *knif* (knife), O.N. *knifr*, *dwellian* (dwell), O.N. *dvelja*, *eorl* (earl) O.N. *jarl*, *féolaga* (companion, fellow), O.N. *félagi*, *gríð* (peace), O.N. *gríð*, *húsbonda* (farmer, husband), O.N. *húsbóndi*, *tacan* (take), O.N. *taka*. We know, too, that in the north and east of England the Old English inflexions were much unsettled by Danish influence, and that in the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries nearly all the older inflexions of nouns, adjectives, and verbs had disappeared, while in the south of England the old forms were kept up to a much later period, and many of them have not yet died out.

There are numerous traces of Scandinavian words—(1) in the local nomenclature of England; (2) in Middle English

¹ For an admirable account of the Danish invasions see Dr. Freeman's *Old English History for Children*, pp. 91—239.

literature of the north of England; (3) in the north of England provincial dialects.

In modern English they are not so numerous. It may be sufficient for the present to say that there are a few common words of undoubted Danish origin, as *till*, *until*, *fro*, *froward*, *ill*, *bound* (for a place), *busk*, *bask*, &c.

38. The next great event that affected the English language was the Norman invasion in 1066, by which French became the language of the Court, of the nobility, of the clergy, of literature, and of all who wished for or sought advancement in Church or State.¹

An old writer tells us that gentlemen's children were taught French from their cradle; and in the grammar-schools boys were taught to construe their Latin into French. Even uplandish men (or rustics) tried to speak French in order to be thought something of, so low did the English and their language fall into disrepute.

Vor bote a man conne frenss, me telp of him lute.
(If a man does not know French, he counts for little.)

Robert of Gloucester, Chronicle, A.D. 1297.

¹ To the Normans we owe most of the terms pertaining to (1) feudalism and war, (2) the church, (3) the law, and (4) the chase.

(1) Aid, arms, armour, assault, banner, baron, battle, buckler, captain, chivalry, challenge, duke, fealty, fief, gallant, hauberk, homage, lance, mail, march, soldier, tialage, truncheon, tournament, vassal, &c.

(2) Altar, Bible, baptism, ceremony, devotion, friar, homily, idolatry, interdict, piety, penance, prayer, preach, relic, religion, sermon, scandal, sacrifice, saint, tonsure.

(3) Assize, attorney, case, cause, chancellor, court, dower, damages, estate, fee, felony, fine, judge, jury, mulct, parliament, plaintiff, plea, plead, statute, sue, tax, ward.

(4) Bay, brace, chase, couple, copse, course, covert, falcon, forest, leash, leveret, mews, quarry, reynard, rabbit, tiercet, venison.

In the universities Latin or French was ordered to be used. French was employed in the courts of law, and the proceedings of Parliament were recorded in French.

The great mass of the people, however, clung to their mother-tongue, and from time to time there arose men who thought it a meritorious work to write in English, for the benefit of the "unlered and lewed," who know nothing of French.

It must be recollected that the Norman invaders did not carry on an exterminating war against the natives as the Saxons did against the Keltic inhabitants, nor were they superior in numbers to the English; and therefore, as might be expected, there came a time when the two races—the conquering and the conquered—coalesced and became one people, and the language of the majority prevailed. While this was taking place French became familiar to the English people, and very many words found their way first in the spoken and then in the written language. But after this coalescence of the two races Norman-French became of less and less importance, and at last ceased to be spoken.

In 1349 boys ceased to learn their Latin through the medium of French, and in 1362 (the 36th year of Edward III.) it was directed by Act of Parliament that all pleadings in the law courts should henceforth be conducted in English, because, as is stated in the preamble to the Act, French was become much unknown in the realm.

Norman-French had suffered too by being transported to English soil, and in the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries came to be regarded as an inferior dialect in comparison with the "French of Paris."

These changes were brought about by political circumstances, such as the loss of Normandy in King John's reign, and the French wars of Edward III. (1339), which

produced a strong anti-Gallican feeling in the minds of both Anglo-Normans and English.

39. We have seen that Norman French is sprung from the Latin language brought into Gaul by the Romans. It has, however, preserved (1) some few Keltic words borrowed from the old Gauls;¹ (2) many Teutonic terms introduced by the Franks, who in the fifth century conquered the country, and imposed their name upon the country, and language;² (3) a few Scandinavian words brought into the language by the Northmen who settled in Normandy in the tenth century.

But the Norman-French was essentially a Latin tongue, and it added to English another Latin element, which is usually called the *Latin of the third period*.

40. From the revival of learning in the beginning of the sixteenth century up to the present time we have introduced a large number of words from Latin. These have been called the *Latin of the fourth period*.

Greek words have also found their way into the language, but have been borrowed more sparingly than Latin.

The Latin element, then, comes to us either *indirectly* or *directly*. That introduced by the Norman-French comes *indirectly*, and has in very many instances undergone great change in spelling. Latin words of the fourth period are borrowed direct from the Latin, and have not suffered much alteration. A few examples will make this clear:—

¹ As *vassal*, *varlet*, &c.

² *Marshal*, *seneschal*, *guile*, &c.

Latin introduced by Norman-French.	Latin borrowed directly from the Latin.	Latin
balm	balsam	balsamum
caitiff	captive	captivus
coy	quiet	quietus
feat	fact	factum
fashion	faction	factio
frail	fragile	fragilis
lesson	lection	lectio
penance	penitence	penitentia
sure	secure	securus
trail	tract	tractus

Compare, too, *ancestor* and *antecessor*; *sampler* and *exemplar*; *benison* and *benediction*; *conceit* and *conception*; *constraint* and *constriction*; *defeat* and *defect*; *forge* and *fabric*; *malison* and *malediction*; *mayor* and *major*; *nourishment* and *nutriment*; *poor* and *pauper*; *orison* (prayer) and *oration*; *proctor* and *procurator*; *purveyance* and *providence*; *ray* and *radius*; *respite* and *respect*; *sir* and *senior*; *surface* and *superficies*; *treason* and *tradition*.

Loyal and *legal*; *privy* and *private*; *royal* and *regal*; *strait* and *strict*.

Aggrieve and *aggravate*; *couch* and *collocate*; *construe* and *construct*; *csteem* and *estimate*; *paint* and *depict*; *purvey* and *provide*; *rule* and *regulate*.

A few words from the Greek have suffered similar change, as *frenzy*, *blame* (cp. *blaspheme*), *phantom* (cp. *fantasm*), *story* (cp. *history*).

41. Our language has naturalized miscellaneous words from various sources besides those already mentioned.

- (1) *Hebrew*.—Abbot, amen, cabal, cherub, jubilee, pharisaical, Sabbath, seraph, Shibboleth.
- (2) *Arabic*.—Admiral, alchemy, alkali, alcohol, alcove, almanac, almanac (?), amulet, arrack, arsenal, artichoke, assassin, atlas, azure, bazaar, caliph, chemistry, cotton, cipher, dragoman, elixir, felucca, gazelle, giraffe, shrub, syrup, sofa, sherbet, tahsman, tariff, tamand, zenith, zero.

Arabic exercised powerful influence upon European culture in the Middle Ages. Many words in the above list, as *admiral*, *artichoke*, *assassin*, &c., as well as most of the Oriental words in the following lists, have come to us through one of the Romance dialects.

- (3) *Persian*.—Caravan, chess, dervish, lac, flac, orange, pasha, sash, shawl, turban, taffety.
- (4) *Hindu*.—Calico, chintz, dimity, jungle, loot, muslin, nabob, pagoda, palanquin, pundit, rajah, rice, rupee, sugar, toddy.
- (5) *Malay*.—(Run) a-muck, bantam, gamboge, orang outang, rattan, sago, verandah; tattoo and taboo (Polynesian); gingham (Java).
- (6) *Chinese*.—Caddy, nankeen, tea.
- (7) *Turkish*.—Caftan, chouse, divan, janissary, odalisk, saloop, scimitar.
- (8) *American*.—Canoe, cocoa, hammock, maize, potato, skunk, squaw, tobacco, tomahawk, wigwam, yam.
- (9) *Italian*.—Balustrade, bandit, bravo, bust, canto, carnival, charlatan, domino, ditto, dilettante, folio, gazette, grotto, harlequin, motto, portico, scaramouch, stanza, stiletto, stucco, studio, tenor, umbrella, vista, volcano, &c.
- (10) *Spanish*.—Alligator, armada, cargo, cigar, desperado, don, embargo, flotilla, gala, mosquito, punctillio, tornado, &c.
- (11) *Portuguese*.—Caste, commodore, fetishism, palaver, porcelain, &c.
- (12) *French*.—Aide-de-camp, accoucheur, accouchement, attaché, au fait, belle, bivouac, belles-lettres, billet-doux, badinage, blasé, bon mot, bouquet, brochure, bonhomie, blonde, brusque, busk, coif, coup, débris, débris, déjeuner, dépôt, éclat, élite, employé, ensemble, enthui, etiquette, entrémets, façade, fiancée, foible, fricassé, goût, interne, omelet, naive, naïveté, pynchant, nonchalance, ouïe, passé, persiflage, personnel, physique, précis, prestige, programme, protégé, rapport, redaction, renaissance, recherché, séance, soirée, trousseau.
- (13) *Dutch*.—Block, boom, boor, cruise, loiter, ogle, ravel, ruffle, scamper, schooner, sloop, stiver, wifeacre, yacht, &c.
- (14) *German*.—Alpenstock, dachshund, landgrave, landgravine, maulstick, waltz, cobalt, nickel, quartz, felspar, zinc.

42. Taking the actual number of words from a good English dictionary, the sum total will be over 100,000. Words of classical origin are calculated to be about twice as numerous as pure English words; hence some writers, who have only considered the constituent parts of our vocabulary, have come to the conclusion that English is not only a mixed or composite language, but also a Romanic language. They have, however, overlooked the fact that

the *grammar* is not mixed or borrowed, but is altogether English.

We must recollect that in ordinary conversation our vocabulary is limited, and that we do not employ more than from three to five thousand words, while our best writers make use of about twice that number.

- Now it is possible to carry on conversation, and write numerous sentences, without employing any borrowed terms; but if we endeavour to speak or write, without making use of the native element (grammar or vocabulary), we shall find that such a thing is impossible. In our talk, in the works of our greatest writers, the English element greatly preponderates.

43. It will be interesting as well as useful to be able to distinguish the English or Low German elements from the Romanic terms.

Pure English are—

- I. 1. Demonstrative adjectives (a, the, this); pronouns (personal, relative, demonstrative, &c.); numerals.
 2. All auxiliary and defective verbs.
 3. Prepositions and conjunctions.
 4. Nouns forming their plural by change of vowel.
 5. Verbs forming their past tense by change of vowel.
 6. Adjectives forming their degrees of comparison irregularly.
- II. 1. Grammatical inflexions, as—
- (a) Plural suffixes (-s and -en) and ending of possessive case.
 - (b) Verbal inflexions of present and past tenses, of active and passive participles.
 - (c) Suffixes denoting degrees of comparison.

III. 1. Numerous suffixes—

(a) Of Nouns, as *-hood*, *-ship*, *-dom*, *-th* (-i), *-ness*, *-ing*, *-ling*, *-kin*, *-ock*.

(b) Of Adjectives, as *-ful*, *-ly*, *-en*, *-ish*, *-some*, *-ward*.

(c) Of Verbs, as *-en*.

2. Numerous prefixes, as *a*, *al*, *be*, *for*, *ful*, *on*, *over*, *out*, *under*.

Most monosyllabic words.

The names of the elements and their changes, of the seasons, the heavenly bodies, the divisions of time, the features of natural scenery, the organs of the body, the modes of bodily actions and posture, the commonest animals, the words used in earliest childhood, the ordinary terms of traffic, the constituent words in proverbs, the designation of kindred, the simpler emotions of the mind, terms of pleasantry, satire, contempt, indignation, invective, and anger, are for the most part unborrowed.¹

Of English Origin.

I. Heaven, sky, welkin, sun, moon, star, thunder, lightning, ice, weather, wind, storm, blast, cold, frost, heat, warmth, cloud, dew, hail, snow, ice, rime, rain, hoarfrost, sleet, time, tide, year, month, day, night, light, darkness, twilight, dawn, morning, evening, noon, afternoon, winter, spring, summer, harvest.

II. World, earth, land, hill, dale, ground, bottom, height, water, sea, stream, flood, ebb, burn, well, spring, wave, waterfall, island.

Of Romanic Origin.

Figment, meteor, planet, comet, air, atmosphere, season, autumn, hour, minute.

Mountain, valley, river, riaslet, torrent, cascade, fountain, undulation.

¹ Rogers in *Edinburgh Review*, April 1859.

Of English Origin.

III. Mould, sand, loam, clay, stone, gold, silver, lead, tin, iron, quicksilver.

IV. Field, heath, wood, thicket, grove, tree, alder, ash, beech, birch, elm, fir, oak, lime, willow, yew, apple, pear, plum, berry, crop, corn, wheat, rye, oats, barley, acorn, sloe, bramble, nut, flax, grass, weed, leek, wort, moss, reed, ivy, clover, flax, bean, daisy, foxglove, honeysuckle, bloody, blossom, root, stem, stalk, leaf, twig, sprig, spray, rod, bow, sprout, rind, bark, haulm, hay, straw, ear, cluster, seed, chaff.

V. Hare, roe, hart, deer, fox, wolf, boar, marten, cat, rat, mouse, dog, hound, bitch, ape, ass, horse, mare, nag, cow, ox, bull, calf, neat, sheep, buck, ram, swine, sow, farrow, goat, mole.

VI. Bird, fowl, hawk, raven, rook, crow, stork, bittern, crane, glede, swan, owl, lapwing, starling, lark, nightingale, throstle, swallow, dove, finch, sparrow, snipe, wren, goose, duck, hen, gander, drake.

VII. Fish, whale, shark, eel, herring, lobster, otter, cackle.

VIII. Worm, adder, snake, bee, wasp, fly, midge, hornet, gnat, drone, humble-bee, beetle, chafer, spider, grasshopper, louse, flea, moth, butterfly, ant, maggot, frog, toad, tadpole.

Of Romanic Origin.

Bronze, mercury, names of precious stones.

Forest, poplar, pine, fruit, cherry, apricot, juice, grape, grain, onion, carrot, cabbage, pea, flower, pansy, violet, lily, tulip, trunk, branch, &c.

Animal, beast, squirrel, lion, tiger, mule, elephant, &c.

Eagle, falcon, heron, ostrich, vulture, mavis, pigeon.

Salmon, sturgeon, lamprey, trout.

Serpent, lizard, alligator.

Of English Origin.

IX. Man, woman, body, flesh, bone, soul, ghost, mind, blood, gore, sweat, limb, head, brain, skull, eye, brow, ear, mouth, lip, nose, chin, cheek, forehead, tongue, tooth, neck, throat, shoulder, arm, elbow, hand, foot, fist, finger, toe, thumb, nail, wrist, ankle, hough, sole, shank, shin, leg, knee, hip, thigh, side, rib, back, womb, belly, navel, breast, bosom, barm, lap, liver, maw, sinew, skin, fell, hair, lock, beard, whiskers.

X. Horn, neb, snout, beak, tail, mane, udder, claw, hoof, comb, fleece, wool, feather, bristle, down, wing.

XI. House, yard, hall, church, room, wall, wainscot, beam, gable, floor, roof, staple, door, gate, stair, threshold, window, shelf, hearth, fireside, stove, oven, stool, bench, bed, stall, bin, crib, loft, kitchen, tub, can, mug, loom, cyp, vat, ewer, kettle, trough, ton, dish, board, spoon, knife, cloth, knocker, bell, handle, watch, clock, looking-glass, hardware, tile.

XII. Plough, share, furrow, rake, harrow, sickle, scythe, sheaf, barn, flail, waggon, wain, cart, wheel, spoke, nave, yoke.

XIII. Weeds, cloth, shirt, skirt, smock, sack, sleeve, coat, belt, girdle, band, clasp, hose, breeches, drawers, shoe, glove, hood, hat, stockings, ring, pin, needle, weapon, sword, hilt, blade, sheath, axe, spear, dart, shaft, arrow, bow, shield, helm, saddle, bridle, stirrup, halter

Of Romanic Origin.

Corpse, spirit, perspiration, countenance, stature, figure, palate, stomach, moustache, palm, vein, artery, intestines, nerves.

Palace, temple, chapel, tabernacle, tent, chamber, cabinet, parlour, closet, chimney, ceiling, front, battlement, pinnacle, tower, lattice, table, chair, stable, garret, cellar, furniture, utensils, goblet, chalice, cauldron, fork, nap (-kin), plate, carpet, tapestry, mirror, curtain, cutlery.

Coulter.

Garment, lace, buckle, pocket, trousers, dress, robe, costume, pall, boot, cap, bonnet, veil, button, target, gauntlet, mail, harness, arms.

Of English Origin.

XIV. Meat, food, fodder, meal, dough, bread, loaf, crumb, cake, milk, honey, tallow, flesh, ham, drink, wine, beer, ale.

XV. Ship, keel, boat, wherry, hulk, fleet, float, raft, stern, stem, board, deck, helm, rudder, oar, sail, mast.

XVI. Father, mother, sister, brother, son, daughter, husband, wife, bride, godfather, step-mother.

XVII. Trade, business, chapman, bookseller, fishmonger, &c. ; pedlar, hosier, shoemaker, &c. ; outfitter, weaver ; baker, cooper, cartwright, fiddler, thatcher, seamstress, smith, goldsmith, blacksmith, fuller, tanner, sailor, miller, cook, skinner, glover, fisherman, sawyer, groom, workman, player, wright.

XVIII. King, queen, earl, lord, lady, knight, alderman, sheriff, beadle, steward

XIX. Kingdom, shire, folk, hundred, riding, wardmote, husting.

Of Romanic Origin.

Victuals, provender, flour, lard, grease, butter, cheese, beef, veal, pork, mutton, roast, boiled, broiled, fry, bacon, toast, sausage, pie, soup, spirits.

Vessel, galley, prow.

Family, grand (-father), uncle, aunt, ancestor, spouse, consort, parent, tutor, pupil, cousin, relation, papa, mamma, niece, nephew, spouse.

Traffic, commerce, industry, mechanic, merchant, principal, partner, clerk, apprentice, potter, draper, actor, laundress, chandler, mariner, barber, vintner, mason, cutler, poulterer, painter, plumber, plasterer, carpenter, mercer, hostler, banker, servant, journey(man), labourer.

Title, dignity, duke, marquis, viscount, baron, baronet, count, squire, master (mister), chancellor, secretary, treasurer, councilor, chamberlain, peer, ambassador, captain, major, colonel, lieutenant, general, ensign, cornet, sergeant, officer, herald, mayor, bailiff, engineer, professor, &c.

Court, state, administration, constitution, people, suite, treaty, union, cabinet, minister, successor, heir, sovereign, renunciation, abdication, dominion, reign, government, council, royal, loyal, emperor, audience, state, parliament, commons, chambers, signor, party, deputy, member, peace, war, inhabitant, subject, navy, army, treasurer.

*Of English Origin.**Of Romanic Origin.*

XX. White, yellow, red, black,
blue, brown, grey, green.

Colour, purple, scarlet, vermillion, violet, orange, sable, &c.

XXI. Fiddle, harp, drum.

Lyre, bass, flute, lute, organ, pipe, violin, &c.

XXII. All words relating to art, except *singing* and *drawing*, are of Romanic origin.

XXIII. Familiar actions, feelings, qualities, are for the most part unborrowed.

*Of English Origin.**Of Romanic Origin.*

Talk, answer, behave, bluster,
gather, grasp, grapple, hear,
hark, listen, hinder, walk
limp, run, leap, &c., &c.

Converse, respond, reply, impel,
prevent, direct, ascend, traverse, &c.

XXIV. The names of special action, qualities, &c., are mostly pure English; general terms are Latin, as—

Warmth, flurry, mildness, heat,
wrath, &c.

Impression, sensation, emotion,
disposition, temper, passion, &c.

Even, smooth, crooked, high,
brittle, narrow, &c.

Equal, level, curved, prominent,
fragile, &c.

44. The Romanic element has provided us with a large number of synonymous terms by which our language is greatly enriched, as—

benediction	and	blessing
commence	„	begin
branch	„	bough
flour	„	meal
member	„	limb
gain	„	win
desire	„	wish
purchase	„	buy
gentle	„	mild
terror	„	dread
sentiment	„	feeling
labour	„	work
flower	„	bloom
amiable	„	friendly
cordial	„	heartly

45. Sometimes we find English and Romanic elements compounded. These are termed Hybrids.

I. *Pure English words with Romanic suffixes :—*

Ance. Hindr-*ance*, further-*ance*, forbear-*ance*.

Age. Bond-*age*, cart-*age*, pound-*age*, stow-*age*, tonn-*age*.

Ment. Forbode-*ment*, endear-*ment*, atone-*ment*, wonder-*ment*.

Ry. Midwife-*ry*, knave-*ry*, &c.

Ity. Odd-*ity*.

Let. } Stream-*let*, smick-*et*.
Et. }

Ess. Godd-*ess*, shepherd-*ess*, huntr-*ess*, songstr-*ess*.

Able. Eat-*able*, laugh-*able*, read-*able*, unmistak-*able*.

Ous. Burden-*ous*, wondr-*ous*.

Ative. Talk-*ative*.

II. *Romanic words with English endings :—*

Ness. Immense-*ness*, factious-*ness*, savage-*ness*, with numerous others formed from adjectives in *ful*, as merci-*ful-ness*, use-*ful-ness*, &c.

Dom. Duke-*dom*, martyr-*dom*.

Hood. False-*hood*.

Rick. Bishop-*rick*.

Ship. Apprentice-*ship*, sureti-*ship*.

Kin. Nap-*kin*.

Less. Use-*less*, grace-*less*, harm-*less*, and many others.

Full. Use-*ful*, grate-*ful*, bounti-*ful*, merci-*ful*, and numerous others.

Some. Quarrel-*some*, cumber-*some*, venture-*some*, humour-*some*.

Ish. Fool-*ish*, fever-*ish*, brut-*ish*, slav-*ish*.

Ly. Pound-*ly*, rude-*ly*, savage-*ly*, and innumerable others.

III. *English words with Romanic prefixes :—*

En, Em. En-dear, en-thral, em-bolden.

Dis. Dis-belief, dis-burden.

Re. Re-kindle, re-light, re-take, re-seat.

IV. *Romanic words with English prefixes :—*

Be. *Be-siege, be-cause, be-powder.*

Under. *Under-value, under-act, under-price.*

Un. *Un-stable, un-fortunate, and very many others.*

Over. *Over-turn, over-value, over-rate, over-curious.*

For. *For-pass, for-send.*

After. *After-piecc, after-pains.*

Out. *Out-prize, out-faced.*

Up. *Up-train.*

CHAPTER V

OLD ENGLISH DIALECTS

46. BEFORE the Norman Conquest we find evidence of *two* dialects, a Southern and a Northern.

The Southern was the literary language, and had an extensive literature; in it are written the best of our oldest English works. The grammar of this dialect is exceedingly uniform, and the vocabulary contains no admixture of Danish terms.

The Northern dialect possesses a very scanty literature. An examination of existing specimens shows us, (1) that this dialect had grammatical inflexions and words unknown to the Southern dialect; (2) that the number of Danish terms are very few.

Some writers think that these differences are due to the original Teutonic tribes that colonized the north and north-east of England. As these tribes are designated by old writers Angles, in contra-distinction to the Jutes and Saxons, this dialect is called Anglian.

The chief points of grammatical difference between the Northern and Southern dialects are:—

- (1) The loss of *n* in the infinitive ending of verbs, as,

N. *cuoeda* = S. *cweðan*, to say.
N. *drinc-a* = S. *drinc-an*, to drink.

- (2) The first person singular indicative ends in *u* or *o* instead of *e*, as

N. *Ic getrôw-u* = S. *getrôw-e*, I believe, trôw.

N. *Ic drinc-o* = S. *drinc-e*, I drink.

- (3) The second person singular present indicative often ends in *-s* rather than *-st*, and we find it in the second person singular preterite indicative of weak verbs—

N. *ðu geplantad-es* = S. *geplantod-est*, thou hast planted.

- (4) The third person singular frequently ends in *s* instead of *th*.

N. *he gewyrce-s* = S. *gewyrceð*, he works.

N. *he onsece-s* = S. *onseceð*, he denies.

- (5) The third plural present indicative and the second person plural imperative often have *-s* instead of *-th*.

N. *hla onfô-s* = S. *hl onfôð*, they receive.

- (6) The occasional omission of *ge* before the passive participle.

N. *hered* = S. *gchered*, praised.

N. *blâsed* = S. *geblêtsod*, blessed.

- (7) Occasional use of active participle in *-and* instead of *-end*.

N. *drinc-ande* = S. *drincepde*, drinking.

- (8) The use of *aren* for *syndon* or *synd* = *are* (in all persons of the plural).

In nouns we find much irregularity as compared with the Southern dialect.

- (9) Plurals end in *a*, *u*, *o*, or *e*, instead of *-an*.¹

N. *heorta* = S. *heortan*, hearts.

N. *witeg-u* = S. *witegan*, prophets.

N. *égo* = S. *égan*, eyes.

N. *nome* = S. *namen*, names.

- (10) *-es* is sometimes found instead of *-e* as the genitive suffix of feminine nouns.

¹ In the Southern dialect words belonging to this declension had *n* in the oblique cases of the singular, but this is dropped in the Northern dialect.

(11) *ðe* and *ðeo* are sometimes found for *se* (masc.) and *sƿe* (fem.) = the.

(12) The plural article *ðat* sometimes occurs for the demonstrative pronoun *hit* = they.

We see that 10, 11, 12, are really changes towards modern English.

47. After the Norman Conquest dialects become much more marked, and in the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries we are able to distinguish three great varieties of English.

(1) The Northern dialect, which was spoken in Northumberland, Durham, and Yorkshire, and in the Lowlands of Scotland.

(2) The Midland dialect, spoken in the whole of the Midland shires, in the East Anglian counties, and in the counties to the west of the Pennine chain; that is, in Cumberland, Westmoreland, Lancashire, Shropshire.

(3) The Southern dialect, spoken in all the counties south of the Thames; in Somersetshire, Gloucestershire, and in parts of Herefordshire and Worcestershire.

It is not difficult to distinguish these dialects from one another on account of their grammatical differences.

The most convenient test is the inflexion of the verb in the present plural indicative.

(4) The Southern dialect employs *-eth*, the Midland *-en*, as the inflexion for all forms of the plural present indicative.

The Northern dialect uses neither of these forms, but substitutes *-es* for *-eth* or *-en*.¹

The Northern dialect has its imperative plural in *-es*; the Southern and Midland dialects, in *-eth*.

¹ We do not find *-s* often in the first person. Often all inflexions are dropped in the plural, as in modern English.

EXAMPLES.

Plural Pres. Up-stegh¹es (up-go) hilles and feldes down-gas (down-go).¹
 þir (these) kinges rides forþ þair rade (road).²
 And gret fisches etes the smale (small).³
 Now we wyn and now we tyn (lose).⁴

Imp. Oppenes (open) your ya⁵tes (gates) wide.⁵
 Gais (go) he said, and spirs (inquire) 'yelle gern
 (earnestly).
 Cums (come) again and tels (tell) me.⁶

Plural Pres. We habbeþ (have) the maystry.⁷
 Childern leueþ Freynsch and construeþ and lurneþ an
 (in) Englysch.⁸

Imp. Lusteþ (listeneth) . . . lateþ (let) me speke.⁹
 Adraweþ ȝoure (your) suerdes (swords).¹⁰

Plural Pres. Loverd we ar-en (are) hoþe pine.¹¹
 Loverd we shole¹²n þe wel fede.¹²
 And þei þat fallen on þe erþe, dyen anon.¹³

Imp. Doþ awei ȝoure ȝatis (gates) and beþ rered up ȝee
 everlastende ȝatis.¹⁴

The Midland dialect, being widely diffused, had various local forms. The most marked of these are : (1) the Eastern Midland, spoken in Lincolnshire, Norfolk, and Suffolk ; (2) the West Midland, spoken in Cumberland, Westmoreland, Lancashire, Cheshire, Shropshire.

The East Midland conjugated its verb in the present singular indicative like the Southern dialect—

1st pers.	hop-e	I hope.
2nd „	hope-st	'thou hopest
3rd „	hop-eth	he hopes.

The West Midland, like the Northern, conjugated its verb as follows :—

¹ *Specimens of Early English*, II. p. 32.

² *Ib.* p. 71.

³ *Ib.* p. 90.

⁴ *Ib.* p. 19.

⁵ *Ib.* p. 29.

⁶ *Ib.* p. 72.

⁷ *Ib.* p. 245.

⁸ *Ib.* p. 241.

⁹ *Ib.* I. p. 190.

¹⁰ *Ib.* II. p. 6.

¹¹ *Ib.* I. p. 231.

¹² *Ib.*

¹³ *Ib.* II. p. 171.

¹⁴ *Ib.* II. p. 232.

1st pers.	hope. ¹
2nd „	hop- <i>es</i> .
3rd „	hop- <i>es</i> .

48. There are many other points in which these dialects differed from one another.

(i.) The Southern was fond, as it still is, of using *v* where the other dialects had *f*, as *vo* = *fa* = foe.; *vinger* = finger. In the old Kentish of the fourteenth century we find *z* for *s*: as *zing*e = to sing; *zed*e = said.

(ii.) It preferred the palatal *ch* to the guttural *k* in many words,² as—

<i>riche</i>	=	Northern	<i>rike</i>	=	kingdom
<i>zech</i>	=	„	<i>sek</i>	=	sack.
<i>crouche</i>	=	„	<i>vroke</i>	=	cross.

(iii.) It often had *ȝ* and *u* where the Northern dialect had *ā* and *i*, as—

<i>hul</i>	=	Northern	<i>hil</i> .
<i>put</i>	=	„	<i>pil</i> .
<i>bōn</i>	=	„	<i>bān</i> = bone.
<i>lāf</i>	=	„	<i>lāf</i> = loaf.
<i>ōn</i> (oon)	=	„	<i>ān</i> = one.

In its inflexions the Southern was still more distinctly marked.

(a) It preserved a large number of nouns with plurals in *n*, as *sterren* = stars, *eyren* = eggs, *kun* = kine, &c. The Northern dialect had only about four of these plurals, namely, *eghen* (= eyes), *hosen*, *oxen*, and *schoon* = (shoes).

(b) It kept up the genitive of feminine nouns in *e*,³ while the Northern dialect employed only the masculine suffix, *s*, as in modern English.

(c) Genitive plurals in *-ene*⁴ are very common, but do not occur at all in the Northern dialect.

¹ The Northern dialect has *s* occasionally in the first person.

² This softening serves to explain many of the double forms in modern English, as *ditch* and *dike*, *church* and *kirk*, *bake* and *batch*, &c.

³ *Soule fode* = soul's food; *senne nede* = sin's need.

⁴ *apostlene fet* = apostles' feet; *Gyrene will* = Jews' will.

- (d) Adjectives and demonstrative pronouns retained many of the older inflections, and the definite article was inflected. Many pronominal forms were employed in the South that never existed in the North, as *ha* (*a*) = he; *is* = them; *i* = her.
- (e) Where the older language had infinitives ending in *-an* and *-ian*, the Southern dialect had *-en* or *-e* and *-ic*.¹ The Northern dialect had scarcely a trace of this inflection.
- (f) Active participles ended in *-inde* (*ynde*); in the North in *-ande* (*and*).²
- (g) Passive participles retained the old prefix *ge* (softened down to *i* or *y*)³; in the North it was never used.
- (h) It had many verbal inflections that were unknown to the Northern dialect, as *-a* (present and past tenses), *-en* (plural past indicative), *-e* (second person singular past indicative of strong verbs).
- (1) The Northern dialect had many plural forms of nouns that were wholly unknown to the Southern dialect, as—*Brether* = brethren, *childer* = children, *ky* = cows (kine), *hend* = hands.
- (2) *That* was used as a demonstrative as at present, without reference to gender. In the Southern dialect *that* was often the neuter of the definite article.
- (3) *Same* (as *the same*, *this same*) was used instead of the Southern *thilke*, modern *thuck*, *thick*, or *thucky*.
- (4) *Thir*, *ther* (the plural of the Scandinavian article), the these, was often used.
- (5) The pronominal forms were very different. Thus instead of the southern *heo* (*hi*, *hii*) = she, this dialect used *sco*, *scho*, the older form of our *she*. It rejected the old plural pronouns of the third person, and substituted the plural article, as *that*, *thair*, *thaim* (*thain*), instead of *hi* (*heo*, *hii*) *heore* (*here*), *heom* (*hem*); *ures*, *yhoures*, *thairs*, quite common then as now, were unknown in the South.
- (6) *At* = to was used as a sign of the infinitive mood; *so* *l* and *schuld* = *shal* and *schuld*.

¹ *Lovie* (= *lufian*), to love; *hatie* (= *hatian*) to hate; *tellen*, *telle* = to tell.

² *singinde*, N. *singand* = singing.

³ *y-broke* = *ybroken* = broken; *i-fare* = *ifaren* = gone.

(7) The Northern dialect had numerous Scandinavian forms, as—

<i>hethen</i> , hence	=	Southern <i>he.ene</i>
<i>thethen</i> , thence	=	„ <i>thenne</i>
<i>whethen</i> , whence	=	„ <i>whennes</i>
<i>sum</i>	=	„ <i>as</i>
<i>fra</i>	=	„ <i>fram</i> = from
<i>til</i>	=	„ <i>to</i>
<i>by</i>	=	„ <i>tun</i> = town
<i>minne</i>	=	„ <i>lessel</i> = less
<i>plogh</i>	=	„ <i>sulz</i> = plough
<i>nefe</i> (<i>neve</i>)	=	„ <i>fist</i> = fist
<i>sterne</i>	=	„ <i>sterre</i> = star
<i>bygg</i>	=	„ <i>bere</i> = barley
<i>low</i>	=	„ <i>ley</i> = flame
<i>werre</i>	=	„ <i>wyrse</i> = worse
<i>slik</i>	=	„ <i>swich</i> = such
<i>gar</i>	=	„ <i>do</i>
&c.	&c.	&c.

49. The East Midland dialect had one peculiarity that has not been found in other dialects, namely, the coalescence of pronouns with verbs, and even with pronouns, as—

<i>caldes</i> = <i>calde</i>	+ <i>es</i> = called them
<i>dedes</i> = <i>dede</i>	+ <i>es</i> = put them
<i>hes</i> = <i>he</i>	+ <i>es</i> = he + them
<i>get</i> = <i>ge</i>	+ <i>it</i> = she + it
<i>mes</i> = <i>me</i> , <i>men</i>	+ <i>es</i> = one (indefinite pronoun, cf. Fr. <i>on</i>) + them.

The West Midland dialect had its peculiarities, as *ho* = she; *hit* = its; *shyn* = shuln (plural).

50. We must bear in mind that the Midland dialect was the speech that was most widely spread, and, as we might expect, would be the one that would gradually take the lead in becoming the standard language. There were, as we have seen, many varieties of the Midland dialect, but by far the most important of these was the East Midland. As early as the beginning of the thirteenth century it began to be cultivated as a literary dialect, and had then thrown off most of the older inflexions, so as to become, in respect

of inflexional forms and syntactical structure, almost as simple as our own.

In this dialect Wycliffe, Gower, and Chaucer wrote, as well as the older and well-known authors, Orm and Robert of Brunne. It was, however, Chaucer's influence that raised this dialect to the position of the standard language. In Chaucer's time this dialect was the language of the metropolis, and had probably found its way south of the Thames into Kent and Surrey.

At a later period the Southern dialect had so far retreated before it as to become *Western* rather than *Southern*; in fact, the latter designation was applied to the language which had become the standard one.

George Puttenham, writing in 1589, speaks of three dialects—the Northern, Western, and Southern. The Northern was that spoken north of the Trent; the Southern was that south of the Trent, which was also the language of the court, of the metropolis, and of the surrounding shires; the Western, as now, was confined to the counties of Gloucestershire, Somersetshire, Wiltshire, &c.¹

¹ "Our maker (poet) therefore at these dayes shall not follow Piers Plowman, nor Gower, nor Lydgate, nor yet Chaucer, for their language is now out of use with us; neither shall he take the termes of Northernmen, such as they use in dayly talke, whether they be noble men, or gentlemen, or of their best clarkes, all is a matter; nor in effect any speach used beyond the river of Trent, though no man can deny but that theirs is the purer English Saxon at this day, yet it is not so courtly nor so current as our *Southerne English* is, no more is the far Westerne man's speach: ye shall therefore take the usual speach of the Court, and that of London and the shires lying about London within lx myles, and not much above. I say not this but that in every shyre of England there be gentlemen and others that speake but specially write as good Southerne as we of Middlesex or Surrey do, but not the common people of every shire, to whom the gentlemen and also their learned clarkes do for the most part condescend, but herein we are already ruled by th' English dictionaries and other bookes written by learned men."

CHAPTER VI

PERIODS OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE

51. ALL living languages, in being handed down from one generation to another, undergo changes and modifications. These go on so gradually as to be almost imperceptible, and it is only by looking back to past periods that we become sensible that the language has changed. A language that possesses a literature is enabled to register the changes that are taking place. Now the English language possesses a most copious literature, which goes as far back as the end of the eighth century, so that it is possible to mark out with some distinctness different periods in the growth or history of our language.

I. *The English of the First Period.*

(A.D. 450—1100.)

(a) The grammar of this period is *synthetic* or inflexional, while that of modern English is *analytical*.¹

(b) The vocabulary contains few foreign elements.

(c) The chief grammatical differences between the oldest English and the English of the present day are these :—

¹ Cp. O.E. *drincan* with “to drink.”

- (1) *Grammatical Gender*.—As in Latin and Greek, gender is marked by the termination of the nominative, and also by other case endings. Substantives and adjectives have three genders—masculine, feminine, and neuter.
- (2) *Declensions of Substantives*.—There were various declensions, and at least five cases (nominative, accusative, genitive, dative, and ablative or instrumental), distinguished by various endings.
- (3) The *Definite Article* was inflected, and was also used both as a demonstrative and a relative pronoun.
- (4) *Pronouns* had a dual number.
- (5) The infinitive of *Verbs* ended in *-an*, the dative infinitive in *-anne* (*-enne*).
- (6) Only the dative infinitive was preceded by the preposition *to*.
- (7) The present participle ended in *-ende*.
- (8) The passive participle was preceded by the prefix *ge-*.
- (9) Active and passive participles were declined like adjectives.
- (10) In the present tense plural indicative the endings were, (1) *-að*; (2) *að*; (3) *-að*.
- (11) In the present pl. subjunctive they were *-on*, *-on*, *-on*.¹
- (12) In the preterite tense plural indicative the endings were *-on* (sometimes *-an*).
- (13) The second person singular in the preterite tense of weak verbs ended in *-st*, as *lofode st* = thou loved-est; the corresponding affix of strong verbs was *-e*, as—
æt-e, thou atest or didst eat.
slēp-e, thou slept-est.
- (14) The future tense was supplied by the present, and *shall* and *will* were not usually *tense* auxiliaries.
- (15) *Prepositions* governed various cases.

-en is an earlier form of this suffix.

II. *The English of the Second Period.*

(A.D. 1100 to about 1250.)

52. Before the Norman Conquest the English language showed a tendency to substitute an analytical for a synthetic structure, and probably, had there been no Norman invasion, English would have arrived at the same simplification of its grammar as nearly every other nation of the Low German stock has done. The Danish invasion had already in some parts of the country produced this result; but the Norman invasion caused these changes, more or less inherent in all languages, to take place more rapidly and more generally.

The first change which took place affected the sounds, and this is to be traced in documents written about the beginning of the twelfth century, and constitutes the only important modification of the older language.

This change consisted in a general weakening of the terminations of words.

- i. The older vowel endings, *a*, *e*, *u*, were reduced to *e*.

This change affected the oblique cases of nouns and adjectives as well as the nominative, so that the termination

<i>an</i>	became	<i>en</i> ¹	<i>ra, ru</i>	became	<i>re</i> .
<i>as</i>	„	<i>e</i> .	<i>ena</i>	„	<i>ene</i> .
<i>að</i>	„	<i>eð</i> .	<i>on</i>	„	<i>en</i> .
<i>um</i>	„	<i>en</i> . ¹	<i>od, ode</i>	„	<i>eð, ede</i> .

- ii. *C* or *k* is often softened to *ch*, and *g* to *y* or *w*.

To make these changes clearer, we give—

- (1) A portion of Ælfric's homily, "*De Initio Creaturæ*," in the English of the first period; (2) the same in the English of the beginning of the twelfth century; and (3 and 4) the same a few years later.²

¹ *n* sometimes disappears.

² Examples 3 and 4 were probably written in different parts of England before 1150.

1. An anginn is ealra ðinga, ðæt is God Ælmihtig.
2. An anginn is ealra þingen, þæt is God Ælmihtig.
3. An angin is alra þingæ, þæt is God almihtig.

4. * * * * *

5. One beginning is there of all things, that is God Almighty.

1. He is ordfruma and ende : he is ordfruma forði ðe he wæs æfre.
2. He is ordfruma and ænde : he is ordfrume for þan þe he wæs æfre.
3. He is ordfruma and ende : he is ordfrume for þi þe he wæs æfre.
4. [He is] hordfruma and ænde : he is ord for he wæs efre.
5. He is beginning and end : he is beginning, for-that that he was ever.

1. He is ende butan ælcere geendunge, for ðan þe he bið æfre unge endod.
2. He is ændæ abuten ælcere geændunge, for þan þe he byð æfre unge-ændod.
3. He is ende buton ælcere endunge, for þan þe he bið æfre unge-endod.
4. He is ænde buton ælcere giendunge.
5. He is end, without any ending, for-that that he is ever unended.

1. He is ealra cyninga cyning, and ealra hláforda hláford.
2. He is ealra kingene kinge, and ealra hlaforda hlaford.
3. He is alra kynge kyng, and alre laforda laford.
4. Heo is alra kingene king, and alra hlaforden hlaford.
5. He is of all kings King, and of all lords Lord.

1. He hylt mid his mihte heofanas and eorðan and ealle.
2. He healt mid his mihte heofonas and eorðan and ealle.
3. He halt mid his mihte heofenes and eorþan and alle.
4. He halt mid his mihte hefene and eorþe and alle.
5. He hoðeth with his might heavens and earth and all.

1. Gesceasta butan geswince.
2. Gesceaste [buten] geswynce.
3. Isceaste buton swinke.
4. Gesceaste buton geswince.
5. Creatures without swink (toil).

The next example is given, (1) in the Oldest English; (2) in that of 1100; (3) in that of about 1150.

1. Twelf unðeawas syndon on ðysserę worulde to hearne

2. Twelf unþeawas synden on þysseŋ wurldē to hearne.

3. Twelf unþeawas beoþ on þissere weorlde to hermen.

4. Twelve vices are there in this world for harm.

1. Eallum mannum gif hī mōton ricsian and hī alecgað.

2. Eallen mannen gyf heo moten rixigen and heo alecgeð.

3. Alle monnen gif hi moten rixian and hi alleccaþ.

4. To all men, if they might hold sway, and they put down.

1. Rihtwisnyse and þone geleasan amyrrað and mancynn gebringað.

2. Rihtwisnyse and þone geleafse amerreþ and mancynn gebringeþ.

3. Rihtwisnesse and þene ileasan anterraþ and moncun bringeþ.

4. Righteousness and (the) belief mar, and mankind bring.

1. Gif hī mōton to helle.

2. Gyf heo moten to helle.

3. gif hi motan to helle.

4. If they might to hell.

From 1150 to 1200 numerous grammatical changes took place, the most important of which were—

1. The indefinite article *an* (*a*) is developed out of the numeral. It is frequently inflected.

2. The definite article becomes *þe*, *þeo*, *þe*, (*þat*), instead of *se*, *seo*, *þæt*.¹

It frequently drops the older inflexions, especially in the feminine.

We find *þe* often used as a plural instead of *þa* or *þu*.

3. Nominative plural of nouns end in *-en* (or *e*) instead of *a* or *u*, thus conforming to plurals of the *u* declension.

4. Plurals in *es* sometimes take the place of those in *-en* (*-an*), the genitive plural ends in *-ene* or *-e*, and occasionally in *-es*.

¹ Traces of *se* and *se* are found in the Kentish dialect of the thirteenth century.

5. The dative plural (originally *-um*) becomes *e* and *en*.
6. Some confusion is seen in the gender of nouns.
7. Adjectives show a tendency to drop certain case-endings :—
 - (1) The genitive singular masculine of the indefinite declension.
 - (2) The genitive and dative feminine of the indefinite declension.
 - (3) The plural *-en* of the definite declension frequently becomes *e*.
8. The dual forms are still in use, but less frequently employed. The dative *him, hem*, are used instead of the accusative.
9. New pronominal forms come into use, as *ha*=he, she, they ; *is*=her ; *is*=them ; *me*=one.
10. The *u* in *min, thin*, are often dropped before consonants, but retained in the plural and oblique cases.
11. The infinitive of verbs frequently drops the final *n*, as *smelle*=*smellen*, to smell ; *herie*=*herien*, to praise. *To* is sometimes used before infinitives.
12. The gerundial or dative infinitive ends often in *-en* or *-e* instead of *-enne* (*-anne*).
13. The *n* of the passive participle is often dropped, as *icume*=*icumen*=come.
14. The present participle ends in *-inde*, and this form is frequently used for the gerundial infinitive, as to *swiminde*=to *swimene*=to swim.

The above remarks apply chiefly to the Southern dialect. In the other dialects of this period (East and West Midland) we find even a greater simplification of the grammar. Thus to take the Ormulum (East Midland) we find the following important changes :—

- (a) The definite article is used as at present, and *that* is employed as a demonstrative irrespective of gender.
- (b) Gender of substantives is almost the same, as in modern English.
- (c) *-es* is used as the ordinary sign of the plural.
- (d) *-es*, singular and plural, has become the ordinary suffix of the genitive case.

- (e) Adjectives, as in Chaucer's time, have a final *e* for the older inflexions: this *e* being chiefly used, (1) as a sign of the plural, (2) to distinguish the definite form of the adjective.
- (f) The forms *they*, *theirs*, come into use.
- (g) Passive participles drop the prefix *i* (*ge*), as *cumen* for *icumen*.
- (h) The plural of the present indicative ends in *-en* instead of *-eð*.
- (i) *Arn* = *are*, for *beoð*.

In an English work written before 1250, containing many forms belonging to the West Midland dialect, we find—

- (a) Articles and nouns and adjectives as in the Ormulum.
- (b) The pronoun *thai* instead of *hi* or *heo* = they; *I* for *Ich* or *Ich*.
- (c) Passive participles frequently omit the prefix *i*.
- (d) Active participles end in *-ande* instead of *-inde*.
- (e) Verbs are conjugated in the indicative present as follows:—

Singular.	Plural.
(1) luv-e	(1) luv-en
(2) luv-es	(2) luv-en
(3) luv-es	(3) luv-en

- (f) Strong and weak verbs are conjugated after the following manner in the preterite tense:—

	Singular.	Plural.
Weak.	{ (1) makede (2) makedes (3) makede	{ makeden = made makeden ,, makeden ,,
Strong.	{ (1) schop (2) schop (3) schop	{ schop-ere = created, shaped schop-en ,, ,, schop-en ,, ,,

Here we see two important changes: (1) *-es* for *-est* in second person of weak verbs; and (2) the dropping of *e* in strong verbs.

From 1150 to 1250, the influence of Norman-French begins to exhibit itself in the vocabulary of the English language.

III. *The English of the Third Period.*

(A.D. 1250—1350.)

53. (1) Old English *ea* and *eo* become respectively *a* and *e*; arm (poor), hard, fallen (fall); *heofon* (O.E. *heofon*), *herte* (O.E. *heorte*, heart).
- (2) *ea* and *eo* become *ē*; *ēge* (eye), *dēth* (death), *dēp* (deep), *prēst* (priest), *sēn* (seen).
- (3) The vowels *a*, *e*, *o* become long in open syllables; *hære* (hare), *tāle* (tale), *āle* (ale); *ēten* (eat), *bēren* (bear); *fōre* (O.E. *foran*), *hōpe* (O.E. *tōhopa*).
- (4) The article still preserves some of the older inflexions, as: (1)* the genitive singular feminine; (2) the accusative masculine; (3) the plural *þe* (the nominative being used with all cases of nouns).
- (5) Nouns exhibit much confusion in gender—words that were once masculine or feminine becoming neuter.
- (6) Plurals in *-en* and *-es* often used indiscriminately.
- (7) The genitive *-es* becomes more general, and begins to take the place—(1) of the older *-en* and *-e* (in old masculine and neuter nouns; and (2) of *-e* in feminine nouns.
- (8) Dual forms of the personal pronouns dropped out of use shortly before 1300.
- (9) A final *e* used, (1) for the sign of plural of adjectives; and (2) for distinguishing between the definite and indefinite declensions.
- (10) The gerundial infinitive terminates in *-en* and *-e*.
- (11) The ordinary infinitive takes *to* before it.
- (12) Some few strong verbs become weak. Present participles in *-inge* begin to appear about 1300.

French words become now more common, especially towards the end of this period.

In ten pages of Robert of Gloucester, Marsh has calculated that four per cent. of the vocabulary is Norman-French

IV. *The English of the Fourth Period.*

(A.D. 1350—1460.)

54. In this period the Midland dialect has become the prevailing one. Northern and Southern words still retain their own peculiarities.

The following are the chief points to be noted :—

1. The plural article, *þe* = the, those, is still often used.
2. The *-es* in plural and genitive case of substantives is mostly a separate syllable.
3. The pronouns are :
 - I* for the older *Ich* (*Ich* sometimes occurs).
 - sche* for the older *heo*.
 - him, them, whom*, used as datives and accusatives.
 - oures, youres, heres*, in common use for *oure, youre, here*.
 - þei* (they) in general use instead of *hi* (*heo*).
 - here* = their.
 - hem* = them.
4. The plurals of verbs in the present and past indicative end *-en* or *-e*.
 - The imperative plural ends in *-eþ*.
 - est* often used as the inflection of the second person singular preterite of strong and weak verbs.
 - The infinitive mood ends in *-en* or *e*; but the inflexion is often lost towards the end of the fourteenth century.
 - The present participle ends usually in *-ing* (*inge*).
 - The passive participle of strong verbs ends in *-en* or *-e*.

The termination *-e* is an important one.

1. It represents an older vowel ending, as *nam-e* = *nam-a*, *sun-e* = *sun-a*; or the termination *-an*, *-en*, as *withate* = *with-utan*.

2. It represents various inflexions, and is used—

(a) As a mark of the plural or definite adjective (adjectival *e*), as *smale fowles*; the *grete* see.

(b) As a mark of adverbs, as *softe* = softly. (Adverbial *e*.)

(c) As a mark of the infinitive mood, past tense of weak verbs and imperative mood. (Verbal *e*.)

Him *thoughte* that his herte *wold* *breke*. (Chaucer.)

Towards the end of this period the use of the final *e* becomes irregular and uncertain, and the Northern forms of the pronouns, *their*, *theirs*, *them*, come into use in the other dialects.

V. *The English of the Fifth Period.*

(A.D. 1460 to present time.)

55. There are really two subdivisions of this period—

(1) 1460 to 1520.

(2) 1520 to present time.

From 1460 to 1520 there is a general dearth of great literary works, but there were two events in this period that greatly affected the language, especially its vocabulary—

(1) The introduction of printing into England by Caxton.

(2) The diffusion of classical literature.

For some peculiarities of Elizabethan English see Abbott's "Shakespearean Grammar."

CHAPTER VII

HISTORY OF ENGLISH SOUNDS

VOWELS

56. IN the early West-Saxon dialect of Old English we find the following vowel-system :—

Short vowels : *a, æ, e, i, o, u, y* ; *ea, eo, ic*.

Long vowels : *ā, ē, ē, ī, ō, ō, ū, ū* ; *ēa, ēo, īc*.

Instances :—

a. faran (to fare), *hara* (hare) ; *habban* (to have), *assa* (ass).

u. gras (grass), *glæs* (glass).

e. elm (elm), *helpan* (to help) ; *benc* (bench), *drencan* (drench).

i. fisc (fish), *his* (his).

o. hors (horse), *frost* ; *nosu* (nose), *gold*.

u. This sound, which soon became e, occurs only in the oldest English texts, e.g. ale (oil), *æxen* (oxen).

u. full, wulf (wolf) ; *lufu* (love), *lust* (lust).

y. bysig (busy), *fyllan* (fill), *grecynd* (kind), *flyht* (flight).

ea. eall (all), *ealu* (ale), *sceal* (shall).

eo. eorðe (earth), *heofon* (heaven), *geor* (yoke).

ic. ieldu (old age), *giefan* (to give).

ā. hālig (holy), *stān* (stone).

ē. dēl (deal), *sē* (sea).

ē. wē (we), *gē* (ye).

ī. lif (life), *wis* (wise).

ō. gōs (goose), *grōwan* (to grow)

ǣ. *gēs* (geese), *gerǣfa* (reeve).

ū. *hūs* (house), *mūs* (mouse).

ēa. *east* (east), *near* (near).

eō. *cneō* (knee), *trēp* (tree).

iī. *hieran* (hear), *need* (need).

57. In Middle English, or rather in the later periods of Old English, the quantity of these vowels underwent the following changes.

(1) *Short vowels were lengthened before ld, nd, rd.*

Old English.	Middle English.	Modern English
cald, Anglian <i>ald</i>	ōld, ould	old
healdan „ <i>haldan</i>	hōlden, houlden	hold
feld	fēld, feeld	field
cild	cīld	child
gold	gōld, goold, gould	gold
bindan	bīnden	bind
blind	blīnd	blind
bunden	būnden	bound
gesund	sīnd, sound	sound
bord	boord, board	board
hord	hōrd	board

(2) *The short vowels, a, e, o, before a simple consonant followed by another vowel were lengthened.* This change took place about the middle of the thirteenth century.

Old English.	Middle English.	Modern English.
faran	fāren	to fare
hatian	hāten	to hate
macian	māken	to make
hara	hāre	hare
alu	āle	ale
beran	bēren	to bear
stelan	stēlen	to steal
mete	mēte	meat
bodian	bōdīen	to bode
socian	sōken	to soak
brocen	brōken	broken
open	ōpen	open

To this rule there are exceptions.

Old English.	Middle English.	Modern English.
manig	mani	many
hamor	haimer	hammer
sacbl	sadel	saddle
pening	peni	penny
fetor	feter	fetter
bodig	bodi	body
copor	coper	copper

(3) *On the other hand, long vowels were shortened before two consonants, except before ld, nd, rd, st.* This, which began in Middle English and was completed in Modern English, explains the short vowels in the preterite tense and past participle of such weak verbs as keep, sleep, hear, &c., whose root-vowels are long in the present tense.

Old English.	Middle English.	Modern English.
lédde (preterite from <i>lédan</i>)	ledde	led
sprédde (infinitive <i>sprédan</i>)	spradde	spread
léned p.p. (infinitive <i>lénan</i>)	lened	lent
mæned (infinitive <i>mænan</i>)	mened	meant
wisdóm	wisdom	wisdom (compare <i>wise</i>)
hús-bónda	husbonde	husband (compare <i>house</i>)
hús-þing	husting	hustings

In Modern English long vowels were shortened in many words.

Old English	Middle English.	Modern English.
wét	wcet	wet
séoc	sēk, sike	sick
stíf	stīf	stiff
bósin	bōsemm	bosom
bróðor	brōper	brother
móðor	mōder	mother
flód	flōd	flood
ōðer	ōper	other
stód	stōd	stood

Changes in Quality of Vowels.

58. We will first consider the changes of vowels effected by neighbouring sounds.

A vowel in the former syllable of a word sometimes undergoes a change owing to the influence of a following vowel; this is called *Vowel Mutation*.

In Old English (though not in all dialects) *a* became *ea* before *u(o)*, and *e* became *eo* in the same way. In Middle English these *ea* and *eo* appear again as *a* and *e*.

Old English.	Middle English.	Modern English.
ealu	ale	ale
fealu	falwe	fallow
geolu	gelwe	yellow
heofon	heffne	heaven
seofon	sefen	seven

The most important mutations in Old English as well as in other Teutonic languages are those effected by *i* and *j* on preceding vowels. These mutations explain a great many facts in grammar, and in the formation of words; two instances will suffice for the present. The plurals *men*, *feet*, *teeth*, &c., are accounted for by the influence of *i*, which after it had caused the mutation of *a, o*, in *man*, *fōt*, *tōð*, altogether disappeared in Old English. In the prehistoric period of the Teutonic languages the plurals of these substantives were *mann-iz*, *fāt iz* (compare Greek *πόδ-ες*, Latin *ped-es*), *tanþ-iz* (becoming in prehistoric Old English *tóþi*); but both *i* and *z* were dropped (see above § 30), and the mutation of the root-vowel alone remained as a mark of the plural. Further, the root-vowels of the causal verbs such as *drench*, *set*, got their present shape through the influence of the *j* in the suffix *-jo*; thus Gothic *dragkjan* (literally "to make [somebody] drink") became in Old

English, *drencan* (drench), *satjan* ("to make [somebody] sit") became *settan* (set).

In the following we give an abstract of these mutations in Old English.

a became *e* : Gothic *andeis* (*ei*=*e*), O.E. *ende* (end) ; Gothic *badi*, O.E. *bed* (bed) ; Gothic *batiza*, O.E. *betera* (better) ; Gothic *lagjan*, O.E. *leggan* (to lay) ; Gothic *satjan*, O.E. *settan* (to set).

ā became *ē* : *ānig* (from *ān*, one) any ; *hēlan* (from *hāl*, whole, sound) to heal.

o became *e*, later *e* : *exen* (from *oxxa*), oxen ; *ele* (from Latin *oleum*), oil.

ō became *ē* : *dēman* (from *dōm*, doom), to deem ; *bēc* (from *bōc*, book), books ; *fēt* (from *fōt*, foot) feet.

u became *y* : Gothic *fulljan* (to make full), O.E. *fyllan* (to fill) ; Gothic *ubils*, O.E. *yfel* (evil).

ū became *y* : O.E. *fyllan* (from *fūll*, foul), to defile ; *mūs* (from *mūs*, mouse), mice.

ea and *eo* became *ie*, later *y* (in Anglian *ea* became *e*) : *ieldra*, *ieldra* (from *eald*, old), older ; *wiercan* (from *weorc*, work), to work ; *hierde* (which occurs also as *heorde*), shepherd.

ēa, *ēo* became *ie* : *hiehra* (comparative degree of *hēgh*, high), higher ; *biecnan* (from *bēacen*, beacon) to beckon ; *liehtan* (from *lēht*, light), to shine ; *geseone* (from *geseon*, to see), visible.

Note.—The diphthongs *ie* (from *ea* and *eo*) and *ie* (from *ēa* and *ēo*) became in late West-Saxon *y*, *i* and *f*, *i* respectively ; in the other dialects they appear as *e*, *e*.

Consonantal Mutation is the influence of a consonant on the vowel of a following or preceding syllable. Thus Teutonic *scal* (shall), *gaf* (gave) became in Old English *sceal*, *geaf* through the influence of *c*, *g* ; Old English *sweostor* (sister), *sweord* (sword) appear also as *sweustor*, *sword* under the influence of *w*, and Old English *wifman* became in Middle English *womman*, Modern English *woman*, in the same way.

The influence of consonants on preceding vowels is seen in what was called *vowel-fracture* (Brechung), by the older school of grammarians.

Under the influence of *h*, *l*, and *r* followed by consonants *a* became *ea*, and *e* became *eo*.

Gothic.	Old English.	Middle English.	Modern English
ahtau	cahta	ahte, ehhte	eight
falpan	fealdan	falden	to fold
alls	call	all	all
fallan	feallan	fallen	to fall
arms	earn	arm	arm
barn	bearn	barn	barn (child)
raihts ¹	reohht ²	riht	right
saihs ¹	seox ²	sex	six
silla	scolf	self	self
arþa ¹	eorðe	erthe	earth
hairto ¹	heorte	herte	heart

59. We now proceed to deal with each vowel separately.

Short *a*.

Teutonic *a* underwent several changes in O.E. It became :—

- (1) *a* before simple consonants, as in *was* (was), *gras* (grass).
- (2) *ea* before *h*, *l*, *r*, followed by consonants, as in *cahta* (eight), *feallan* (to fall), *earn* (arm).
- (3) *o* before *m*, *n* as in *lomb* (lamb), *mon* (man). Not in Northumbrian and Mercian.
- (4) *e* before a consonant originally followed by *i*, *j*, as in *men* (men), *sendan* (to send).

In Middle English *a* reappears in the first three cases, we find *was*, *fallen*, *arm*, *lamb*, *man*.³

¹ *ai* = *e*.

² The common form is *riht*, *reht*; *sicx*, *sex*.

³ But O.E. *caht* often became in M.E. *chā*, *eiȝt*; so *ehhte*, *eiȝte*, eight, *lehter*, *leiȝtir*, laughter (O.E. *hleahtror*), beside *ahte*, *lahter*.

In Modern English *a* again underwent several changes :—

- (1) It became again *æ* (as in O.E.) in such words as *man*, *sat*.
- (2) Before *l* not followed by a vowel it became *au* (phonetic symbol *o*), as *fall*, *tall*.
- (3) It was rounded after *w*, *qu*, *wh*, when no back consonant followed, as in *was*, *squalid*, *what*.
- (4) It was lengthened before *s*, *th*, as in *glass*, *path*.

Note.—In some words *a* derives from *e* before *r* as in *fär* (O.E. *feorran*, Middle English *ferre*), *star* (O.E. *steorra*, Middle English *sterre*), *marvel* (French *merveil*). In the last century *er* seems in educated English to have been generally pronounced like *ar*; some traces of this remain, as *sergeant*, *Hertford*, *clerk*; but most words with *er* have been altered in sound by dialects in which *e* before *r* was pronounced as a mixed vowel.

Long *á*

O.E. *á* represents several Teutonic sounds :—

- (1) It is = *á*, as in *sáwon* (we saw), *bláwan* (to blow), *sáwan* (to sow).
- (2) It is = Teutonic *ai*, as in *ágan* (to owe), *snáw* (snow), *ic wát* (I know).
- (3) In Northumbrian and Mercian (not in West Saxon) it stands for short Teutonic *a* lengthened before *ld*, as in *áld* (old), *hálda* (to hold).

In Middle English all these *á* became long open *ó* in the South and Midland, but remain *á* in the North. In the following lines which are taken from the *Cursor Mundi* (A.D. ab. 1300) the northern Gottingen MS. has *á* in all the words where the Midland Trinity MS. has *o*.

He þat laverd, bath gold and man.—He that leid þe god and mon—l. 275.

All hædis he up fra dunefall.—Al holdeth he up fiþ dounfal—l. 280.

þe hali gast comes of þrim to.—The holy goost cometh of hem two—l. 308.

In Modern English this *ó* first became close, and then a diphthong (*ou*).

Short *e*.

Old English *e* derives from :—

(1) Teutonic *e*, as in *etan* (to eat), *beran* (to bear); compare Latin *edo*, *fero*.

(2) Mutation of *a* through a following *i* (*j*), as in *men*, *settan* (to set).

Both these *e*'s, according to Kluge, were close, though this is still disputed.

Middle English develops another *e* by shortening long *ē* before two consonants, as in the preterites of certain weak verbs : *kepte*, *slepte*, *wepete*.

Note.—In Middle English as nowadays in dialects some words exhibit *e* along with the original and legitimate *i* :—*hether* (O.E. *hider*, hither), *theder* (O.E. *thider*, thither), *wheder* or *whether* (O.E. *hwider*, whither). On the other hand we find *together* instead of *together* (O.E. *togædre*, Middle English *togeddre*).

Long *ē*

O.E. close *ē* has several sources :—

(1) West Teutonic *ē*, as in *hēr* (here).

(2) Mutation of *ō*, as in *fēt* (feet), *gēs* (geese).

(3) Mutation of *ēa*, as in *hēran* (to hear), *flēman* (to put to flight).

This *ē* is not found in West Saxon; in its stead we see *y* (*ic*, *i*).

(4) Short *e* lengthened before *ld*, as in *fēld* (field), *sēld* (shield), *gēldan* (to yield); final short *e* lengthened under stress, as in *mē* (me), *thē* (thee), *gē* (ye).

In Middle English these *e*'s, and also the close *ē* from *eo* (see p. 95), tend to become *ee* (*i*, later *ij*), and in Modern English this is the rule.

Besides the close *ē*, there is in Middle English the open *ē*, which derives from different sources :—

(1) O.E. *ea*, which answers to Teutonic *au*, as in *rēd* (red), O.E. *ēad*, Gothic *raups*, German *rot*; *dēth* (death), O.E. *dēaþ*, Gothic *daupus*, German *tot*.

(2) O.E. *e* lengthened before a single consonant followed by a vowel, as in *ēten* (to eat), *brēken* (to break), *spēken* (to speak).

- (3) O.E. *ð* as mutation of *d*, as in *hæthen*, (heathen), O.E. *hæðen*, *dælen* (to deal), O.E. *dælan*; but O.E. *ð* from West Teut. *ā* mostly became close *ē*, as in *lēche* (lēçch, physician), O.E. *lēce*.

These *ē*'s remain the same as in Middle English till the 17th century; about 1700 A.D. they partly become *ee* (*ij*).

Short *ē*.

- O.E. *i* remained in Middle and Modern English :

Old English.	Middle English.	Modern English.
bill	bil	bill (sword)
clif	clif	cliff
sittan	sitten	sit
swimman	swimmen	swim

Note.—*i* before *ld*, *nd* was lengthened.

Besides this O.E. *i* Middle English developed two others from two different sources :—

- (1) Northern and Midland mutation of *u* :—

	Old English.	Northern.	South-Western.	South-Eastern.	Modern English.
Gothic <i>kuni</i>	cyn	kin	kun	ken	kin
Old Saxon <i>kussian</i>	cyssan	kissen	kussen	kesse	kiss
	dynt	dint	dunt	dent	dint
	dysig	disi	dusi	desi	dizzy
Gothic <i>ubils</i>	yfel	ibel (ivel)	uvel	evel	evil
Gothic <i>fulljan</i>	fyllan	fillen	fullen	uelle	fill
	hyll	hil(l)	hul(l)	hel	hill
Old Saxon <i>sundia</i>	synn	sinne	sunne	zenne	sin

- (2) Shortening of long *i* (*y*) before two consonants :—O.E. *wisdom*, Middle and Mod. E. *wisdom*; O.E. *filþ*, Middle E. *filthe*, Mod. E. *filth*.

Long *i*.

O.E. *i* remained in Middle English, became a diphthong at the end of the 15th century, but had not its present sound (*ai*) before the 17th century.

Old English.	Middle English.	Modern English.
bí	bī	by (German 'bei')
bítan	bīten	bite (German 'beissen')
líf	līf	life
tíd	tīd	tide

O.E. *y* (mutation of *í*) shows the same differences in the Middle English dialects as short *y* :—

	Old English	Northern.	South-Western.	South-Eastern.	Modern English.
Gothic <i>brúps</i>	brýd	brīd	brūde	brēde	bride
Old Saxon <i>fuir</i>	fýr	fīr	fūr	vēr	fire
	mýs	mīs	mū(i)s	mēs	mice
	prýte	prīde	prūde	prēde	pride

Short *o*.

O.E. *o* has two sources :—

(1) Teutonic *o* as in *god*, *hors*, *folc*.

(2) Teutonic *a* before *m*, *n*, as in *lomk* (lamb), *long*, *strong*.

While the former *o* remained in Middle and Modern English the latter tended to become *a* again. Chaucer has still *hond*, *lond*, but in the 16th century this *o* survives only in a few words, as in *among*, *long*, *strong*.

Long *ó*.

O.E. *ó* (close) remains in Middle English, but becomes *oo* (*uw*) in Modern English

Old English.	Middle English.	Modern English.
dón	dōn	do
gōs	gōs	goose
nón	nōn	noon
sóna	sōn	soon

Middle English open *ō*, which became close in early Modern English, and is now sounded *ou*, was partly from O.E. *á* (see p. 91) and partly from short *o* lengthened before a single consonant and a vowel, as *open*, *over*.

Short *u*.

O.E. *u* remained in Middle English and in the first century of Modern English. Thus *u* in *buck*, *lust*, *must* had the same sound as *u* in *full*, *pull*. But in the 17th century it got its present sound, while the old *u* survived in a few words, such as *bull*, *bush*, *pull*, *put*, probably under the influence of the preceding labial.

Long *ū* was preserved in Middle English, but became a diphthong in Modern English, as in *house* (O.E. *hūs*), *mouse* (O.E. *mūs*).

Diphthongs.

The Old English diphthongs *ea*, *eo* as well as the long *ēa*, *ēo* disappeared in Middle English; in their stead we find *a*, *e*, *ē* :—

Old English.	Middle English.	Modern English.
calu	ale	ale
feallan	fallen	fall
heard	hard	hard
heofon	hevepe	heaven
eorthe	eorthe	earth
béam	bēm	beam
léaf	lēf	leaf
scéaf	scēf (schēf)	sheaf
stréam	strēm	stream
cnéo	cnē	knee
gléo	glē	glee
tréo	trē	tree

But new diphthongs arose out of the Old English sound groups *ag*, *æg*, *eg*, *og*; *āg*, *āw*, *ēw*, *ēaw*, *ēow*, *ōg*, *ōw*.

Old English.	Middle English.	Modern English.
<i>ag</i> became <i>aw</i> :—		
dagian	dawen	dawn
hagu-born	haweborn	hawthorn
lagu	lawe	law
út-laga	ut-lawe	outlaw

Old English.	Middle English.	Modern English.
<i>æg</i> became <i>ai</i> :—		
bræger	brain	brain
dæg	dai	day
fægen	fain	fain
nægel	nail	nail

eg became *ei*, which, later on, was interchanged with *ai* :—

leger	leir	lair
reg(e)n	rein	rain
segel	seil	sail
weg	wei	way

og became *ow* :—

boga	bowe	bow
flogen	flowen	flown

ig and *aw* became *ow* (open *o*) in the Midland and South :—

agin	owen	owe
dæg	dōwe	dough
blāwan	blōwen	blow
māwan	mōwen	mow
sāwan	sōwen	sow

æg became *ei* :—

cæg	kefe	key
clæg	clei	clay
græg	grei	gray, grey

aw and *ew* became *eu*, *ew* (with open *e*) :—

lāwed	lēwede	lewd
fēaw	fēwe	few
dēaw	dēu	dew
hēawan	hēwen	hew

ew became *eu*, *ew* (close *e*) :—

blēow	blēu, blew	blew
(preterite from blāwan)		
cnēow	knēw	knew
(from cnāwan)		
nēowe	nēw	new
trēowe	trēw	true

ig and *ow* became *ou*, *ow* (close *o*) :—

bóg	bōu	bow
wógian	wōwen	woo
flówan	flōwen	flow
grówan	grōwen	grow

These Middle English diphthongs developed in the following way :—

ai and *ei* which were kept apart in Middle English soon became very similar in sound, and in the 17th century both were pronounced like *a* in *flame*.

au did not get its present sound before the end of the 16th century.

ēu and *ĕu* which were different sounds in Middle English became, in Modern English, first *iu* (*ē* being regularly changed into *i*), then *ju*, the stress at the same time shifting from *u* to *u*.

ōu and *ōu* were no longer distinguished in the 16th century, and in the 17th they both became *ou* as in *go*, *no*.

The diphthong *oi*, which is of French origin and occurs, with a few exceptions, only in French words, was the same in Middle English as in our own time.

The following table shows the development of vowels from the Teutonic down to Modern English:—

Teutonic.	Old English.	Middle English.				Modern English.
		East Midland.	South-West.	Kent.	North.	
a	lond	land	lon l	land	land	land
	wæs	was	was	wes	was	was
	eall	all	all	all	all	all
	earm	arm	arm	arm	arm	arm
c	ealu	āle	āle	yāle	āle	ale
	nama	nāmē	nāme	nāme	nāme	name
	helpan	helpe(n)	helpen	helpen	helpe	help
	eorðe	erthe	erthe	yerthe	erthe	earth
a followed by i (j)	heofon	hevene	hevene	hevene	heven	heaven
	etan	ēte(n)	ēten	ēten	ēte	eat
	bed	bed	bed	bed	bed	bed
	mete	mēte	mēte	mēte	mēte	meat
i	fisc	fish	fish	fish	fish	fish
	god	god	god	god	god	god
	ofer	ōver	ōver	ōver	ōver	over
	sunu	sune (sone)	sune	sone	son	son
u	bull	bull	bull	bull	bull	bull
	mæ̃l	mēl	mēl	mēl	mēl	meal
	hēr	hēr(e)	hēre	hēre	hēre	here
	mīn	mīn	mīn	mīn	mīn	mine
ō	fōt	fōt	vōt	vōt	fōt	foot
	mūs	mous	mous	mous	mous	mouse
	āð	ōth	ōth	ōth	ōth	oath
	lēaf	lēvē	lēve	ly(e)af	leve	leaf
ai	lēop	dēp	dēp	dyēp	dēp	deep

CONSONANTS.

62. We now proceed to deal with the development which the O.E. consonants have undergone from the earliest stage of the language to modern times.

B remained both in Middle and Modern English. In the verbs *have* (O.F. *habban*) and *heave* (O.E. *heþōan*) *v* supplanted *b*, because the forms with *f* were more numerous than those with *b*, and in Middle English this *f* between vowels became *v*; the O.E. present tense was

ic hæbbe (I have)	we habbað (we have)
ðu hafast (thou hast)	ge habbað (you have)
he hafað (he has)	hie habbað (they have)

But the preterite tense had only *f*:—

ic hæfde	we hæfdon
ðu hæfdest	ge hæfdon
he hæfde	hie hæfdon.

The past participle was *hæfd*.

B sometimes crept in between *m* and *l*, and between *m* and *r*: O.E. *ðymel*, Middle English *thimbel* (thimble); O.E. *brēmel*, Middle English *brembl* (bramble), compare German *Brom-beere*; *rumble* appears as *rommle* in provincial E. and in other Teutonic dialects—Old E. *slumerian*, Middle English *slombren* (slumber), compare German *schlummern*; Gothic *timrjan*, O.E. *timber*, compare German *zimmern*. Compare in French, *humble* from *humilis*, *nombre* from *numerus*.

B after *m*, which does not appear before the Modern English period, was never spoken, and owes its origin to the analogy of such words as *climb*, *comb*, *dumb*, *lamb*, *womb* whose *b* was dropped (in the pronunciation) about 1600 A.D. This accounts for the wrong spelling of *crumb* (O.E. *croma*, Middle English *crumme*), *limb* (Old and Middle English *lim*), *numb* (O.E. *ge-numen*, literally 'seized,' Middle

English *i-nume*), *thumb* (O.E. *þúma*, Middle English *thume*).

In a few words *þ* became *p*:—O.E. *god-sib* (gossip); O.E. *cýs-libb* (cheese-lip); Old French *borse* (purse), cf. *bursar*, *disburse*; Old French *abricos* (apricot).

P in the beginning was dropped before *s* even in O.E. Compare *sealm* (psalm).

It crept in between *m* and *t*¹:—O.E. *émetig* Middle English *empti* (empty); compare *gleam* and *glimpse*, *sempster* and *seamster*; French *tempter* from Latin *tentare*.

In a few cases *þ* became *ð*:—O.E. *loppestre* (lobster); O.E. *áttor-coppe* (spider), Middle English *coppe*, Modern English *cob-web*.

f was voiced between two vowels:—O.E. *heofon*, Middle English *heven* (heaven); O.E. *seofon*, Middle English *seven* (seven); O.E. *lif*, gen. *lifes*, dat. *life* became in Middle English *lyf*, *lyves*, *lyve*; hence in Modern English *life*, *lives*, *leaf*, *leaves*, &c.

Initial *f* was voiced in Southern English; compare *vinger* (finger), *viss* (fish) in the Kentish work *Ayenbite of Inweyt* (A.D. 1340). In a few instances this Southern *v* was introduced into the London dialect:—O.E. *fana* (banner, compare German *Fahne*), Middle and Modern English *vane*; O.E. *fæt*, Middle English *fatt* (or *vat*), Modern English *vat*; O.E. *fyxen* (a she-fox), Middle English *fixen* (or *vixen*), Modern English *vixen*. Compare the other Kenticisms in modern standard English, as *left*, *evil*, &c.

F in the middle of the word often disappeared:—

Old English.	Middle English.	Modern English.
hēafod	heved	head
hláford	loverd	lord
hlāfdige	lavedy	lady

¹ It is doubtful whether this *p* was ever spoken; it may represent only a partial unvoicing of the *m* before *t*.

Assimilation took place in *woman* (O.E. *wifman*), *leman* (O.E. *lēofman*), *lamm* (O.E. *lāf-mæsse*, i.e. *loaf-mass*).

W. O.E. *w* was, on the whole, kept in the beginning of words, but there are a few exceptions in which 'it was discarded:—O.E. *wōs*, Middle English *wōse*, Modern *ooze*. Compare *ood*=wood (mad) in Starkey's *England in the Time of Henry VIII.* p. 12; *oldys*=wolds, *ibid.* p. 73.

In the middle it was discarded before *o* in the following words:—*who* (O.E. *hwā*, Middle English *hō*); *so* (O.E. *sweā*, Middle English *sō*); *two* (O.E. *twā*, Middle English *tō*); *sword* (O.E. *sweord*, Middle English *sword*); *thong* (O.E. *ṭwong*, Middle English both *thwong* and *thong*). *W* also disappeared in *such* (O.E. *sweylc*, Middle English *soche*); *kill* (O.E. *cwellan* [or *cwyllan*], Middle English *cwellen*);¹ *answer*, (O.E. *andswarian*, Middle English *answēren*).

Note.—In the sixteenth century we find *soun(d)* along with *swoon*, *soop* along with *swoop*; *w* was absorbed by preceding vowels both in the middle and at the end of words: O.E. *feower*, Middle English *fower* or *f(e)our*, Modern English *four*; O.E. *lāwerce*, Middle English *larke*, Modern English *lark*; O.E. *sāwol*, Middle English *soule*, Modern English *soul*; O.E. *strāw*, Middle English *strau*, Modern English *straw*; O.E. *endow*, Middle English *cneu*, Modern English *knee*; O.E. *trēwe*, Middle English *trewe*, Modern English *true*.

W before *r* was not silent before the seventeenth century.

Besides *w*, the regular descendant of O.E. *w*, there is, in Middle English, another deriving from *g* in the middle of words:—

Old English.	Middle English.	Modern English.
folgian	folwēn	follow
galga	galwe	gallow(s)
morgen	morwe	morrow
hālgā	halwe	All-Hallows ²

¹ *quell* is a doublet of *kill*.

² *Holy*, the modern word, is a doublet of *hallow* deriving from *hālg*.

D remained in Middle and Modern English. In a few words (where an *r* followed) *d* changed into *th*.

Old English.	Middle English.	Modern English.
fæder	fader	father
móder	moder	mother
tó-gædre	togeddre	together
hider	hider	hither
ðider	thider	thither

Note.—Conversely O. E. *ð* changed in some words into *d*:—

Old English.	Middle English	Modern English.
byrðen	burden	burden
cúðe	couthē	could ¹
morðor	morthe	murder

D crept in between *n* and *l* or *r*:—

Old English.	Middle English	Modern English.
spinel	spinel	spindle
cyn-ræden	kinrede	kindred
ðunor	thunder	thunder

In a few words *d* was added to final *n*: Old Norse *búinn* (ready) became *bound*, Middle English *hine* became *hind*, and in the same way Old English *lénan* was developed into *lend*. Compare also *expound* (Middle English *expounen*, from *exponere*).

Note.—In Middle English, and in the first period of Modern English the tendency to add *d* after final *n* was more general, and did not stop even at proper names; we find *Mahound* (Old French *Mahoun*), *Hamaud* (instead of *Haman*), *Symond* (*Simon*), *Sermond* (instead of *sermon*) in Berners' *Ilvon of Bordenx* is perhaps a misprint.

Conversely, final *d* after *n* was often dropped. We find *friendship* (instead of *friendship*); *an* (instead of *and*, very frequent); *fon* (instead of *fond*); compare the Modern English pronunciation of *handsome*, *handkerchief*.

D was also sometimes added to *t*: *Ilde of Wizt* (Isle of

¹ *l* was introduced in analogy of *would* (O. E. *wolde*).

Wight), *Beues of Ikmton*—l. 1335; *erld* (earl), *Ferumbras*—l. 241; *vild* (vile) often in Elizabethan writers, e.g.

“The *vild* profaner of this sacred bower.”
 KYD, *Spanish Tragedy*, p. 55.

D was discarded in *bless* (O.E. *blédsian*, to consecrate by blood, from *blód*, ‘blood’), and *gossip* (O.E. *god-sibb*).

In the preterite and past participle of contracted weak verbs *d* became *t* :—

Old English.	Middle English	Modern English.
gyrde	girte	girt
sende	ente	sent

T. Final *t* became in some words *d* : O.E. *prūt*, Middle English *prūd*, Modern English *proud*; O.E. *prýte*, Middle English *pride*, Modern English *pride*; Latin *c(ā)arta*, Old French *carte* (charte), Modern English *card*; ¹ Old and Modern French *diamant*, Modern English *diamond*.

Quite exceptionally *t* was changed into *th* in *author* from Latin *autor*. In London documents of the fifteenth century we find occasionally *tho* (instead of *to* = *two*), *whythe* (instead of *white*). A relic of this wrong spelling (which had no phonetic significance) is, in Modern English, *Thames* (O.E. *Temese*).

Final *t* was dropped in O.E. *arwilt(e)*, Middle English *arwilt* (*arwelt*), Modern English *arvil*.

T has in some words been added after final *n* and *s* in Middle and Modern English.

Old and Modern French *ancien*, Modern English *ancient*.

Old and Modern French *faisan*, Modern English *pheasant*.

Old and Modern French *tyran*, Modern English *tyrant*.

¹ The doublet of *card* is *chart*.

Old English *hūs*, Middle English *bihūste*, Modern English *behest*.

Old English *tō-gægnēs*, Middle English *on-ȝænes*, Modern English *against*.

Old English *on-gemang*, Middle English *amanges*, Modern English *amongst*.

Old English *tō-middes*, Middle English *amiddes*, Modern English *amidst*.

Th. Initial *th* was unvoiced in Old and Middle English. At the end of the Middle English period, however, it became voiced in unaccented monosyllables, as in *the* (article), *thee*, *thine*, *that*, *though*, &c.¹

Th (ð) between vowels was, in all probability, already voiced in Old English.

For the change of *th* into *d*, as in *burden*, *murder*, see above under *D*.

Th disappeared in Old English *worðscipe*, Middle English *wor(th)ship*, Modern English *worship*; Old English *Norðfolc*, Modern English *Norfolk*, compare *Norman*, *Norway*, *Norwich*.

S (like *th*) was voiceless in the beginning and at the end of words but voiced between vowels. In the fifteenth century, however, finals became voiced in unaccented endings and monosyllables, as in *elles* (else), *landes* (hands), *is*, *his*.

For the change of Teutonic *s* into *r* see above § 25 (Verner's Law).

Initial *sc* always became *sh*, except in words which were influenced by corresponding Scandinavian words:—

Old English.	Middle English.	Modern English.
sceadu	sohāde	shade
sceal	schal	shall
sceadan	shēden	shed

¹ Compare *Verner's Law*, above, § 25.

Old English.	Middle English.	Modern English
scelf	shelve	shelf
scip	ship	ship
scort	short	short

The following words with *sc* are :—

- (1) Influenced by the Norse.
- (2) Borrowed from the Norse.
- (3) Borrowed from the Latin or French.

(1) O.E. *sceabb*, Middle English *scab*, Modern English *scab*; this shape of the word shows the influence of Scandinavian (comp. Swedish *skabb*), while the doublet *shabby* (Middle English *shab* = *scab*) derives directly from the O.E. word.

O.E. *scealu*, Middle English *scale*, Modern English *scale(s)*; comp. Old Norse *skál*.

O.E. *scrapian*, Middle English *schrapien* and *scrapen*, Modern English *scape*; comp. Scandinavian *skrapa*.

- (2) Old Norse *skil*, Middle and Modern English *skill* ;
 " " *skinn*, " " " " *skin* ;
 " " *skyrtá*, " " " " *skirt* ;
 " " *sky*, " " " " *sky*.

(3) O.E. *scōl* (from Latin *schola*), Middle English *scōle*, Modern English *school*; Old French *escorgie*, Middle English *scourge*, Modern English *scourge*; the words *scaffold*, *scald*, *escape*, *scarce*, and others, derive from the corresponding Old French words in the dialect of Picardy.

K. Teutonic *k* underwent in Frisian and Old English an important change. Before the vowels *æ*, *ā*, *ē*; *eo*, *ēu*, *ea*, *i*, *ī* it was formed by the tongue and hard palate. Accordingly *k* shows, in English, a twofold development.

- (1) *K* before consonants and the vowels *a*, *ā*, *o*, *ō*, *u*, *ū*, *y*,

ȝ, which was guttural, *i.e.* formed by the tongue and soft palate, remained in Middle and Modern English :—

Old English.	Middle English.	Modern English.
clǣne	clecne	clean
cnéo	knee	knee
créopan	creepen	creep
caif	caif	can
corn	corn	corn
cuppe	cuppe	cup
cýning	kyng	king

became *ch* (*a*) before *a*, *é*, *e*, *eo*, *éa*, *éo*, *i*, *ī* :—

Old English.	Middle English.	Modern English.
ceaf (cæf)	chaff	chaff
ceafor (cæfor)	chaffer.	(cock) chafer
ceorl	cherl	churl
céace	chēke	check
cīcen	chiken	chicken
céosan	chēsen	choose

(*b*) in words where, in Teutonic, *k* had been followed by *i* :—

henc (from Teutonic <i>hanki</i>)	bench	bench
finc (from Teutonic <i>finki</i>)	finch	finch
stenc	stench	stench

Compare *drench* (O.E. *drencan*, Gothic *drangkjan*), *quenck* (O.E. *cwencan*), *wrench* (O.E. *wrencan*);

(*c*) In monosyllables after *i* :—

dīc	dich	ditch
pīc	pich	pitch
lic	lich	lick-gate

Compare all the town names ending in *wich*, as Greenwich, Harwich, Ipswich, &c.

But this rule refers only to the Southern (and East Midland) dialects. In the North there seems to have been a stop in the development of *k*, and even a reaction in

favour of *k* instead of *ch*. Compare the following instances:—

Old English.	Southern	Northern.	Modern English.
ic	ich	ic	I
cetel	chetel	ketel	kettle
micel	moche	mikel	much
sécan	sechen	seke	seek
wyrcean	wirchen	wirken	work

Compare Scotch *birk*, *brecks*, *kaff*, *cank*, *kirk*, *kirn*, *kist*, *sick*, *streek* with English *birch*, *breeches*, *chaff*, *chalk*, *church*, *churn*, *chest*, *such*, *stretch*.

Such words as *cold*, *seek*, *must*, therefore, have been influenced by the Northern dialects; their Southern form would be *chold*, *seech* (cf. *beseech*).

G had also, in O.E., two different sounds, and accordingly shows a twofold development.

In prehistoric O.E. *g* was a voiced guttural spirant. *G* kept this sound in the beginning of words before consonants, and the back vowels *a*, *o*, *u*, *y*; but before *e*, *i*, and after *e*, *æ* its articulation was very early shifted from the *soft* palate to the *hard*, and *g* was then pronounced like *y* in *you*. Hence the letter *g* was used for an original *y* sound, as in *geong* (young).

In the course of the O.E. period, the guttural spirant *g* became a stop in the beginning of words, but remained a spirant in the middle. This in early Middle English was written *ȝ*, but subsequently acquired the sound of *w* (written *w* or *u*):—

Old English.	Middle English.	Modern English.
glas	glass	glass
gréne	greene	green
galga	galwe	gallow(s)
gāt	goot	goat
god	god	god

Old English.	Middle English.	Modern English
gód	good	good
gutt	gut	gut
gylt	gilt	guilt
boga	bowe	bowe
dragan	drawen	draw
folgian	folwen	follow

Palatal *g* remained, but was no longer written *g*, but *ȝ*, afterwards *y* :—

Old English.	Middle English.	Modern English.
ȝearn	ȝarn	yarn
ȝerd	ȝerde	yard
ȝe	ȝe	ye
ȝeldan	ȝelden	yield
ȝeolu	ȝelwe	yellow
ȝeong	ȝong	young
dæg	dæȝ (oldest form)	dai
weg	weȝ (oldest form)	way

Palatal *g* in the middle and at the end was later on absorbed by the preceding vowels and became *i* :—

Old English.	Middle English.	Modern English
brægen	brain	brain
fæger	fair	fair
hægel	hail	hail
regnian	reinen	rain
seglian	seilen	sail
éage	cie	ey
fléogan	flien	fly
dæg	dai	day
weg	wei	way

In the following words long *i* represents two *ii* (from O.E. *ig*) :—

O.E. *vigele* (Latin *tégula*), Middle English *tile*, Modern English *tile*; O.E. *stigel*, Middle and Modern English *stile*; O.E. *Frige-dæg*, Middle and Modern English *Friday*; O.E. *nigon*, Middle English *nizen*, Modern English *nine*

Compare also short *i* in stirrup (O.F. *stigráp*, 'mounting-rope').

To the latter rule, namely the change of O.E. *g* into *ɟ* and *j*, there are many exceptions which are accounted for by

- (1) Analogy, or
- (2) Scandinavian influence.

O.E. *ng* and *gg* (*cg*) which, in Teutonic, had been followed by *j* (*i*), were palatal, and, accordingly changed in Middle English into *nj* and *j*:—

Old English.	Middle English.	Modern English
crengan	crengen	cringe
swengan	swengen	swinge
brycg	brigge	bridge
ecg	egge	edge
micge	migge	midge
hrycg	rigge	ridge

H in the beginning of words of Teutonic origin remained; but *h* in *hl*, *hn*, *hr* was beginning to be dropped as early as 1000 A.D.

Old English	Middle English.	Modern English
habban	habben (haven)	have
hægl	hail	hail
hand	hand	hand
hlāford	lōverd	lord
hlāfdige	lēvedi	lady
hlēor (check)	lēre	leer
hnappian	nappen	nap
hnecca	nekke	neck
hautu	nute	nut
hræfn	raven	raven
hreddan	redde	tid
bring	ring	ring

In Modern English there is a tendency to drop *h* before *w*:—*what* (only a modified spelling of Old and Middle

English *hwat*) is colloquially pronounced *wat*; *which* (O.E. *hwylc*) becomes *wich*, &c.

Guttural *h*, in the middle and at the end was rounded in Middle English, and, in Modern English, passed into *f*:—

Old English.	Middle English	Modern English.
cōhhetan	co(u)ghen	cough
genōh(g)	ino(h)gh	enough
hl(i)ehhan	lahhen (lauh)	laugh
tōh	touh	tough

H in the middle followed by *t* came to be dropped, the preceding vowel being lengthened.

Old English.	Middle English	Modern English.
dihtan	dihten	eight
lēoht (liht)	liht	light
meaht (miht)	miht	might
niht	niht	night
riht	riht	right

L disappeared in the following words:—

Old English	Middle English	Modern English.
ælc	ech	each
ealswá	alse, asc	as
hwylc	whilch	which
swylc	woche	such
mycel	moche	much ¹
—	wenchel	wench ²

L in *could* is a spelling mistake caused by the analogy of *should*, *would*.

L was dropped in pronunciation of the following words, although it is kept in the spelling:—*balm*, *calm*, *calf*, *chalk*, *talk*, *walk*, *should*, *would*, &c.

IV. It is one of the features of Low-German, (Frisian, Old Saxon, and Old English) that *n* before the voiceless

¹ *Mickle*, which is still used in the North, occurs in Shakspeare:—*An oath of mickle might.* *Henry V.* II. 1, 70.

² In the last two instances, however, there is a change in the formation of words rather than a change of sound.

spirants, *th*, *j*, *s*, is dropped, the preceding vowel being lengthened :—O.E. *cūðe* (could), Gothic *kunþa*, German *konnte*; *ððer* (other), Gothic *anþara*, German *ander*; *tōð* (tooth), Gothic *tunþus*; *gōs* (goose), Gothic *gans*, German *gans*; *ūs* (us), Gothic *unsis*.

N of suffixes disappeared in Middle English as early as the thirteenth century :—

Old English.	Middle English.	Modern English.
gamen	gāme	game
mægden	maide	maid
biforan	bifore	before
bihindan	bihinde	behind
onbūton	aboute	about
wiðūton	withoute	without

N was added to some words in consequence of a misdivision of consecutive words, especially of the indefinite article *an* and nouns. Thus *an ewt* (O.E. *efete*, Middle English *evete*, *ewte*) became *a newt*, *an eke-name* became *a nickname*; conversely *n* was clipped off from the following nouns and added to the article :—*a nadder* (O.E. *nēddre*, Middle English *nadder*) became *an adder*, *a napron* (Old French *naperon*) became *an apron*, *a numpire* (Middle English *noumpere*) became *an umpire*. In Middle English the spelling *a nother* is quite common; in Shakspere we find *nuncle*, *naunt*.

N appears as *n* in *hemp* (O.E. *hæneþ*, German *hanf*, *kannvaßis*), *lime-tree* (O.E. *lind*, Middle English *linde*, German *linde*); compare also *comfort* (Old French *confort*), *tempt* (Old French *tempter*), *venom* (Old French *venin*).

R has intruded into the following words :—*cartridge* (French *cartouche*), *corporal* (French *caporal*), *bride-groom* (O.E. *brýð-guma*), *hoarse* (O.E. *hūs*, Middle English *hoos*, German *heiser*).

CHAPTER VIII

ORTHOGRAPHY

61. LETTERS are conventional signs employed to represent sounds. The collection of letters is called the alphabet; from Alpha and Beta, the names of the first two letters of the Greek alphabet. The alphabet has grown out of the old pictorial mode of writing. The earliest written signs denoted concrete objects: they were pictorial representations of objects, like the old Egyptian hieroglyphics.

Then single sounds were afterwards indicated by parts of these pictures.

The alphabet which has given rise to that now in use among nearly all the European nations, was originally syllabic, in which the consonants were regarded as the substantial part of the syllable, the vowels being looked upon as altogether subordinate and of inferior value. Consequently the consonants only were written, or written in full—the accompanying vowel being either omitted, or represented by some less conspicuous symbol. Such is the construction of the ancient Semitic alphabet—the Phœnician, from which have sprung the Hebrew, Syriac, Arabic, Sanskrit, Greek, and Latin alphabets.

The Runic alphabet, in which some of the oldest English texts, such as those on the Cross of Ruthwell and the Casket, were written, was founded on one of the Greek or Latin.

alphabets, the changes in the shape having been caused by the nature of the materials (wood, stone), which the Teutonic tribes made use of in their inscriptions.

62. On being converted to Christianity, the Anglo-Saxons adopted the Latin alphabet in its British form. It consisted of twenty-three letters; *i* and *j*, as well as *u* and *v* being expressed by the same character. To the Roman alphabet the Anglo-Saxons added three new signs: þ (thorn) and ƿ (wyn) are Runic letters; ð is merely a crossed *d*, used instead of the thorn.

Vowel-sounds which were not found in Latin were represented by combinations of letters: *æ* in *fæder* (father), *æt* (at), *æ* in *fæt* (feet; oldest form, later *fēt*).

The principle of the Old English was a phonetic one, that is to say, people tried to write as they spoke. But in practice, even in the Old English spelling, the correspondence between the sounds and the symbols by which they were represented was imperfect. Thus the letter *c* meant both guttural *c* as in *cyn* (kin), and the palatal or front sound which was very near our *ch* as in *chece* (cheek), and *f* stood both for the unvoiced *f* as in *fugol* (fowl), and the voiced *v* as in *drifun* (drive).

63. In Middle English the French alphabet, which was founded on the Latin, came into use. In consequence of this, several letters and combinations of letters came to represent other sounds than before.

U was used to represent O.F. *y* (mutation of Teutonic *u*), as in *burgen*, O.E. *byrgan* (to bury), *burðene*, O.E. *byrðen* (burden).

O.E. *y* was often represented by *ui*, as in *fuir*, O.E. *fyr* (fire).

For clearness' sake *y* was written for *i*, and *o* for *u* before *m*, *n*, *u*, as in *nymen* (to take), *fynden* (to find), *gyues* (gives,

letters), *wyues* (wives); *comen* (to come); *honi* (honey; O.E. *hunig*), *loue* (love; O.E. *lufu*).

Ou was used to represent the sound descending from O.E. *u*:—*foul* (O.E. *fúl*), *hous* (O.E. *hús*), *mouse* (O.E. *mús*).

Ch was introduced for the palatal sound of *c* (*cheake* = cheek), *gh* for O.E. *h* (*knight*, *right*).

64. At the end of the fifteenth and in the beginning of the sixteenth centuries two causes largely contributed to make the English orthography much more inconsistent than it had ever been before.

(1) The printing-press once being introduced into England, the spelling tended more and more to get settled, till at last a uniform printing orthography was generally adopted. The natural consequence of this fixed traditional spelling was that the old symbols remained, although the sounds which they were meant to represent underwent great changes both in their quality and quantity. Thus the final *e*, initial *g* and *h* before *n*, *gh* after *i*, are still written, although they have been entirely discarded in pronunciation.

(2) The other cause which, although to a smaller extent, also contributed to widen the gulf between speech and spelling was the practice which came up of modifying the spelling in accordance with etymology. What we rightly consider now as natural change and development of sound, was in those times looked upon as corruption, and therefore many words were artificially spelt not as they were pronounced, but as the Latin or Greek etymology seemed to require.

Thus *debt* got its *b* from Latin *debitum*, although the English word derives from French *dette*; and the Middle English form *perfit*, which was adopted from the Old French *parfet*(z), was transformed into *perfect*, the Latin shape of the same word. Compare also *doubt*, *advance*, *insure*.

65. To sum up :—

During the written period of our language the pronunciation of sounds has undergone great and extensive changes at different times, while the spelling has not kept pace, with these changes, so that there has arisen a great dislocation of our orthographical system, a divorcement of our written from our spoken alphabet. Besides, the introduction of foreign elements into the English language during its written period has brought into use different and often discordant systems of orthography (cf. *ch* in *church*, *machin*, *Christian*, *monarch*).

The English spelling, then, is an imperfect one, for a perfect alphabet must be based upon phonetic principles, and

(1) Every simple sound must be represented by a distinct symbol.

(2) No sound must be represented by more than one sign.

Now the English language contains, at the lowest possible estimate, forty-two sounds, but the written alphabet has only twenty-six letters or symbols to represent them: therefore in the first point necessary to a perfect system of orthography the English alphabet is found wanting.

The alphabet, as we have seen, is redundant, containing three superfluous letters, *c*, *q*, *x*; on the other hand it has only twenty-three letters wherewith to represent forty-two sounds. So that it is both imperfect and redundant.

Attempts at reforming the present spelling have been made by Alexander John *Ellis*, A. Melville *Bell*, Isaac *Pitman*, and Henry *Sweet*.

CHAPTER IX .

ACCENT

66. ACCENT, in its general meaning, is 'a prominence given to one syllable in a word, or in a phrase, over the adjacent syllables.'

In the Teutonic languages this prominence was produced by the greater force or *stress* of the voice. As we have seen above, the *stress*, in Old English, as well as in the other Teutonic dialects, was laid on the first syllable of a simple word.

In compounds the same principle was generally followed, but there was one important exception. *Compounds consisting of particles (whether separable or inseparable) and verbs had the stress on the verbs:—*

O.E. *a-beran* (to bear), *a-bidan* (to abide), *a-breca*n (to break).

O.E. *æt-beran* (to bear forward), *æt-fæstan* (to afflict with), *æt-sittan* (to sit by).

O.E. *be-cuman* (to become), *be-delfan* (to bury), *be-fæstan* (to fasten).

O.E. *ge-choose*n (to choose), *ge-cndwan* (to know), *ge-seon* (to see).

O.E. *of-faran* (to overtake), *of-gifan* (to give up), *of-sendan* (to send for).

O.F. *ofer-cuman* (to overcome), *ofer-drincan* (to overdrink one's self), *ofer-flōwan* (overflow).

Ō.E. *to-breccan* (to break), *to-dēclan* (to separate), *to-teran* (to tear).

O.E. *un-dōn* (to undo).

If the particles *æt*-, *of*-, *ofer*-, *tō*- form the first part of noun compounds, they have the stress :—

O.E. *æt-steall* (camp-station), *of-spring* (offspring).

O.E. *ofer-mód* ('over-mood,' pride), *tō-cyme* (coming, arrival).

In Middle English the same principle of accentuation was followed in words of Teutonic origin ; only in a few compounds the stress was shifted from the particle to the noun, as in the words *al-mihtī* (almighty), *mis-dēd* (misdēd).

Words of French origin were at first stressed in accordance with the French system of accentuation, which was practically to stress the last syllable containing a full vowel. Hence we find in Middle English *resoun'* with the accent on the second syllable, *fortune'*, *prizoun'*, etc.

But as early as the thirteenth century, the Teutonic accentuation began to assert itself in French words, so that there arose a hard struggle between the two systems of accentuation which lasted on to the sixteenth century. Not only *Chaucer*, but also *Wyatt*, *Surrey*, and *Spenser* took advantage of this circumstance of the accent being unfixed, and stressed words of French origin at their convenience.

By eterne word to deyen in *prisoun'*.

CHAUCER, *Knight's Tale*, 251.

But

This *pri'soun* causede me not for to crye.

Ibid. 237.

Surrey has *pala'ce*, *travail'*, etc.

But the *pala'ce* within confounded was.

Works (Arlene Edition), p. 132.

The end of each *travail*' forthwith I sought to know.

Ibid. p. 82.

A straunger in thy home and *ignorant*'

Of Phædria, thine owne fellow *servant*'.

SPENSER, *Faerie Queene*, ii. 6, 9.

In Modern English the tendency towards bringing words of French and Latin origin under the Teutonic accentuation has, on the whole, carried the day, so that, as a rule, familiar words of French, Latin, and Greek origin throw back their accent as far as possible from the end:—avarice, criminal, dangerous, penitence; delicacy, imagery, literature; telegram, photograph.

The Old English system of stressing the verb in verbal compounds and the prefix in nouns as in *ofer-cuman*, *un-dôn*, in contrast with *ofer-môd*, *tô-cyme*, has been extended to compounds of French origin. This accounts for the different accentuation in such words as

ab'sent (adj.)

absent' (verb)

com'pact

compact'

ex'pert

expert'

Later on, this dissimilation was extended also to simple words, so that the accent serves to distinguish nouns from verbs:—

aug'ment

augment'

fer'ment

ferment'

fre'quent

frequent'

etc.

(1) Many words of French origin have kept their original accent, especially nouns, in *-ade*, *-ier* (*eer*), *-é*, *-ee*, *-oon*, *-ine*, *-ette*, *-esque*:—*Cascade*, *crusade*; *cavalier*, *chandelier*; *gazetteer*, *pioneer* (in conformity with these, we say *harpooneer*, *moun-taineer*); *legatee*, *lessee*; *balloon*, *cartoon*; *chagrin*; *routine*, *marine*; *gazette*; *burlesque*, *grotesque*.

(2) Many Latin and Greek words of comparatively recent introduction keep their original form and accent, as—*auró'ra, coró'na, lolos'sus, diagnó'sis, idé'a, papy'rus.*

(3) Some Italian and Spanish words keep their full form and original accent, as *mulatto, sonata, volcano.*

67. The influence of stress accounts for a great many changes in the history of sounds and inflexions. The unaccented syllables being much weaker than accented ones, they are liable to be shortened or dropped altogether.

The dropping of unaccented syllables occurs—

(a) At the beginning of words (aphæresis).

(b) In the middle of words (syncope).

(c) At the end of words (apocope).

(a) Aphæresis.

(a) In words of Teutonic origin.

The Old English prefix *ge-*, Middle English *y-*, which we find even in the sixteenth century, has disappeared altogether in Modern English. *Ydeft* and other such past participles are archaisms.

The dropping of *a* in such phrases as 'the house is building,' which would be Middle English *a-building* for *on building* comes under this head. Compare also Old English *of-dúne*, Middle English *adown*, Modern English *down*.

(β) In words of French origin.

Words which in Old French began with *es-* dropped the *e* :—

Old French.	Middle English.	Modern English.
escars	scars	* scarce
escarlat	scarlat	scarlet
escorgie	sçorge	scourge
espace	space	space
espus	spos	spouse
esquier	squier	squire
estendard	standard	standard

De-, di- before *s* was often dropped :—

Old French.	Middle English.	Modern English.
despenser	despencer	Spencer, Spenser

(original meaning : 'steward')

despit	despit	spite
desport	disport	sport
destrece	distresse	stress

Other instances of aphæresis :—

Latin (from Greek) *episcôpus*, Old English *biscep*, Middle and Modern English *bishop*; Middle English *idropesie*, from Old French *idropisie* (Latin *hydropisis*), *drôpsy*.

(b) Syncope.

(a) In words of Teutonic origin.

Even in Old English short *i* and *u* forming the second syllable of three-syllabled words were discarded, when immediately following a stressed long syllable; thus the preterites of weak verbs are accounted for :—*ic hêrde* or *hýrde* (I heard), Gothic *hausida*; *ic sende* (I sent), Gothic *sandida*.

The tendency to drop the middle vowel produced the following changes :—

Old English.	Middle English.	Modern English.
adesa	adese	adze
æmete	amete	ant
Engla land	Engle-land	England
lāwerce	larke	lark.

Cf. *fortnight* from fourteen night, *sennight* from seven night, and the pronunciation of *Gloucester*, *Leicester*, etc.

In Modern colloquial English the same tendency may be observed.

(β) In words of French origin.

Old French.	Middle English.	Modern English.
botiller	boteler	butler
chaundeler	chandler	chandler
garnement	garnement	garment
keverchief	coverchef	kerchief
marechal	mareschal	marshal
procuracie	prokēye	proxy

(c) Apocope.

The most important change produced by apocope in the development of English was the dropping of the final *-e*, which as late as Chaucer's time was pronounced in innumerable words that now end phonetically in a consonant.

For the changes produced in Teutonic by the shifting of accent, see Verner's Law, § 25 above.

CHAPTER X

ETYMOLOGY

68. ETYMOLOGY treats of the structure and history of words; its chief divisions are *inflection* and *derivation* (including *composition*).

69. Words are of two kinds :

(1) *Notional* words, which symbolize objects of thought (whether things or beings, qualities or attributes, actions or states), as *man*, *sweet*, *good*, *sweetly*, and most verbs ;

(2) *Relational* words, which merely indicate the relations or relative positions of objects of thought, as *he*, *this*, *here*, *then*, *of*, and the verb *to be* when used as a mere copula.

This classification is often useful, though it is not capable of universal application, and it is not always possible to draw the line sharply between the two classes of words.

Words as actually used in language have a relational element added to the notional element in their meaning. Thus *man* and *man's*, *move* and *moved*, stand for the same object of thought, but viewed in different relations.

70. The variation of form which words undergo in order to adapt them to different relations is called **inflexion** (or *flexion*). Ordinarily inflexion consists in the addition of different endings (called *flexional suffixes*) to a stem, which is the part of the word which remains the same (except so far as the addition of the suffix may cause euphonic modifications). Thus in the Latin *rego, regis, regit*, the stem is *reg-*, and *-o*, *-is*, *-it* are the flexional suffixes.

In English, as in many other languages, many flexional suffixes have been lost, so that one or more of the inflexional forms of a word have come to coincide with the stem. Thus in Modern English *stone* is the form not only of the stem, but also of the nominative case; but in primitive Teutonic *staino-* was the stem, and *staino-s* the nominative case.

The function of inflexion is, in modern languages, often served by the addition of relational words. Thus we can say *the house of the queen* for *the queen's house*; here the word *of* fulfils the same purpose as the flexional suffix *'s*. The English *I had loved* means the same as the Latin *amaveram*. In grammar it is found convenient to treat the phrasal substitutes for inflexion under the same head as the inflexions proper.

It was formerly believed that all flexional suffixes were originally distinct words. This is true of some of them; the French (*j'*)*aimerai*, I shall love, for instance, represents the vulgar Latin *amare habeo* (= 'to love' + 'I have'). But few philologists now hold that flexional suffixes universally originated in this way.

71. **Derivation** is the formation of word-stems. Many English stems are adopted from other languages, as *city*; others descend from primitive Teutonic, or even from primitive Indo-European, as *guest*, Teut. *gasti-*, I.E. *ghosti-*;

others have been formed in English itself from other stems by the addition of what are called *formative suffixes*, as *beautiful*.

In their ultimate analysis, stems consist of a root and one or more formative suffixes. A root is a syllable or combination of syllables expressing a general (often very vague) notion which may be common to a great number of words. The roots of English words are mostly inherited from the primitive Indo-European tongue, with gradual alteration in their sounds. Indo-European roots had usually several forms, differing in their vowels, and these varieties are perpetuated in the modern languages. The root which is contained in the verb *bear*, with its inflexional forms *bore* and *borne*, for instance, had in the original language the forms *bher-*, *bhor-*, *bhr-* (in primitive Teutonic *ber-*, *bar-*, *bur-*, or *bor-*), and other English words derived from it are *bairn*, *birth*, *burden*. Roots are either *predicative*, corresponding to notional words, or *demonstrative*, corresponding to relational words.

72. **Composition** is the formation of a compound stem by joining together two or more stems, as in *work-shop*. In many cases a stem that was very frequently used in composition has lost its original signification, and become a mere formative suffix or prefix. Lists of such formative elements are given in Chap. XIX.

73. The parts of speech¹ are:—

- | | | |
|-----------------|---|-----------------------------------|
| | { | 1. Noun (Substantive, Adjective). |
| I. Inflexional. | | 2. Verb. |
| | | 3. Pronoun. |

¹ The term 'parts of speech' is a mistranslation of Latin *partes orationis*, which originally meant 'the parts of a sentence,' the elements of which a sentence consists.

- II. Indeclinable words or particles. $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} 4. \text{ Adverb.} \\ 5. \text{ Preposition.} \\ 6. \text{ Conjunction.} \\ 7. \text{ Interjection.} \end{array} \right.$

74. **Nouns**¹ include—

(1) Abstract substantives, like *virtue*, which denote the *qualities* of things simply, or are significative only of mental conceptions.

(2) Concrete substantives, which denote things or persons.

(3) Adjectives, *i.e.* attributes used as descriptive epithets, and, in fully inflected languages, varying according to the gender, number, and case of the substantive to which the adjective refers. This was the case in Old English; but in Modern English the flexional suffixes have fallen away, so that the adjective cannot, except from the historical point of view, be classed among the inflexional parts of speech.

(4) The verb is the part of speech which is used to predicate something of a subject. English verbs have inflexions varying according to the number and person of the subject, the time to which the sentence relates, and the class of the sentence.

75. **Pro-nouns** are designations analogous to nouns, but of purely relational signification; they are not permanently attached to certain objects or classes of objects; nor are they limited in their application. "Only one thing may be called the *sun*; only certain objects are *white*; but there is

¹ French *nom*, Lat. *nomen*, literally *name*. By English writers *noun* is commonly used in the limited sense of 'substantive.'

nothing which may not be *I* and *you* and *it*, alternately, as the point from which it is viewed.

"In this universality of their application as dependent upon relative situation merely, and in the consequent capacity of each of them to designate any object which has its own specific name besides, and so, in a manner, to stand for and represent that other name, lies the essential character of the pronoun. The Hindu title, *sarvanāman*, 'name for everything,' 'universal designation,' is therefore more directly and fundamentally characteristic than the one we give them, *pronoun*, 'standing for a name.'"—WHITNEY.

Some pronouns correspond in function to substantives, as *I*, *he*, *who*; others to adjectives, as *this*, *that*, *which* (as used in *which man*). In the etymological sense of the word pronoun it would be strictly appropriate only to the former class.

76. **Adverbs** are derivative forms of nouns, adjectives, or pronouns. Thus, our adverbial suffix *-ly* was originally *-lice* = the ablative or dative case of an adjective ending in *-lic* = like; and the adverbial ending *-ment* of Romance words is the Latin ablative *mente*, 'with mind' (Fr. *bonnement* = kindly, *bona mente*, 'with kind intent').

Many relational adverbs are formed from demonstrative pronouns, as *he-re*, *hi-ther*, *wh-e-n*, &c.

77. **Prepositions** were once adverbial prefixes to the verb, serving to point out more clearly the direction of the verbal action: by degrees they detached themselves from the verb and came to belong to the noun, furthering the disappearance of its case-endings, and assuming their office. The oldest prepositions can be traced to pronominal roots; others are from verbal roots.—WHITNEY.

78. **Conjunctions** are of comparatively late growth, and are either of pronominal origin, or abbreviated forms of expression, as—

else	= O.E. <i>elles</i> , a genitive of <i>el</i> = <i>alius</i> .
unless	= <i>on less</i> , cp. French <i>à moins que</i> .
lest	= O.E. <i>ſý lð</i> = <i>ed minus</i> .
but	= <i>by out</i> = (O.S. <i>bi-utan</i> , O.E. <i>bútan</i>).
likewise	= <i>in like wise</i> (manner).
&c.	&c.

CHAPTER XI .

SUBSTANTIVES

79. GENDER is a grammatical distinction, and applies to words only. Sex is a natural distinction, and applies to living objects. In Modern English, however, the gender of a noun is always determined by the sex of the object it denotes : *i.e.* nouns designating male persons or animals are masculine, those denoting female persons or animals are feminine ; and those designating inanimate things are neuter, except so far as by personification we attribute sex to them, as 'The Sun in *his* glory, the Moon in *her* wane.'

This fact is commonly expressed by saying, that Modern English has *natural* gender.

In many other languages, while nouns denoting males and females are, for the most part (not quite always), respectively masculine and feminine, those denoting inanimate objects are classified as masculine, feminine, and neuter, in a seemingly arbitrary manner ; the choice of gender depending often on the ending which the word originally had. Languages in which this is the case are said to have *grammatical* gender. "

LOSS OF GRAMMATICAL GENDER IN ENGLISH.

80. The Oldest English, like Greek and Latin and Modern German, possessed grammatical gender : *fréodóm* (freedom)

and *wifmon* (woman) were masculine, *grétung* (greeting) feminine, *wif* (woman) and *cicen* (chicken) neuter. In O.E. there were very many feminine nouns, denoting female persons or animals, which differed from the corresponding masculine nouns, denoting males, by the addition or alteration of a suffix. Thus all nouns ending in *-a* were masculine, the corresponding feminine suffix being *-e*. Suffixes added to form feminines were *-en*, *-estre*.

<i>mæg-a</i> ,	a kinsman.	<i>mæg-e</i> ,	a kinswoman.
<i>widura</i> ,	a widower.	<i>widure</i> ,	a widow.
<i>munuc</i> ,	a monk.	<i>my nacen</i> ,	a nun.
<i>god</i> ,	a god.	<i>gyden</i> ,	a goddess.
<i>webba</i> ,	a weaver.	<i>webbe</i> and <i>webb-estre</i> ,	a webster.

81. Grammatical gender went gradually out of use after the Norman Conquest, owing to the following causes:—

(1) The confusion between masculine and feminine suffixes.

(2) Loss of suffixes marking gender.

(3) Loss of case inflexions in the masculine and feminine forms of demonstratives.

In O.E. there are many instances of the same noun having different genders. Thus we find

<i>dic</i> (dyke)	both	m. and f.
<i>hyll</i> (hill)	„	m. and n.
<i>heofon</i> (heaven)	„	m. and f.
<i>fen</i> (fen)	„	m. and n.
<i>frip</i> (peace)	„	m. and n.
<i>secg</i> (sedge)	„	m. and n.

In the second half of the twelfth century there are already several instances of the neuter supplanting the grammatical gender of masculine and feminine.

Eal þe murrðe þe me us bihat, al *hit* sceal beo god anc.
(All the mirth that is promised us shall be only God).

Moral Poem, l. 364.

Myrð is a feminine in O.E.

He hæweþ us izarked þa eche blisse, 3if we wulleþ *hit* iernien, in
heutene riche (he has prepared for us eternal bliss, if we strive to merit
it, in the kingdom of heaven).

Old English Homilies, i. 19.

Bliss is a feminine in O.E.

His nome þet we of him haven.

He *hit* hale3c, þet we craven.

(His name that we of him have, that he it hallow we crave).

Ibid. 59.

Nama is a masculine in O.E.

The number of such neuters is much greater in the texts of the thirteenth century (cf. *lare*, 'lore,' *Legend of St. Katherine*, 117; *speche*, 'speech,' *Ancren Riwele*, p. 74; *milce*, 'mildness,' 'charity,' Layamon B, ii. 281; *sibbe*, 'peace,' *ibid.* A and B i. 155), and in the beginning of the fourteenth century the grammatical gender is, as a rule, out of use.

82. Traces of grammatical gender were preserved much longer in some dialects than in others. The Northern dialects were the first to discard the older distinctions, which, however, survived in the Southern dialect of Kent as late at least as 1340.

"Therthe schok, the sonne dym becom
In *thare tyde*."—SHOREHAM.

Here the inflection of the demonstrative shows that *tyde* is feminine.

"Be thise virtue the guode overcomth alle his vyendes *thane* dyvel,
the wordle, and *thet vless*."—AYENBITE.

Dyvel is masculine; *wordle* feminine; and *vless* neuter.

83. The names of males belong to the masculine gender, the names of females to the feminine gender. The names of things of neither sex are neuter. In a few cases the attribution of sex to inanimate objects has given rise to something superficially resembling grammatical gender. The *sun* is masculine, the *moon* is feminine, reversing the gender in Old English and Modern German. *Ship* and (often) *boat*, and names denoting kinds of ships and boats, are feminine. Otherwise the masculine or feminine is substituted for the neuter only when there is conscious personification. In the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries this substitution sometimes occurs where it would not now be admissible.

This Virgile made by his craft an image or a statue, and sett *him* in the middes of the cite.—*Gesta Romanorum* (A.D. 1470), p. 27.

In one of which a sumptuous temple stands
That threatens the stars with *her* aspiring top.

MARLOWE, *Faustus*, Scene VIII.

84. There are three ways of distinguishing the masculine and feminine in English substantives :—

(a) By employing a different word for the male and female.

(b) By the use of suffixes.

(c) By composition.

85. Before the Conquest our language possessed many words answering to our 'man.'

The term 'man' corresponded generally in sense to the German *mensch*, person, and was not confined originally to the masculine gender; hence it occurs frequently in compounds with a qualifying term; as—*wif-man*, woman; *leof-man*, sweetheart; *wæpned-man*,¹ man, male.

¹ *Wæpned-man* = a man armed with a weapon.

Other common words for 'man' were *guma*, as in *brydguma* = bridegroom (Ger. *bräutigam*) = the bride's man (the modern form is due to confusion with the quite different word *groom*, a lad);¹ *bepn*; *ceorl*, our *churl* (cp. the cognate *carl*,² of Old Norse origin); *wer*³ (man and husband).

86. I. Different words for the masculine and feminine.

FATHER.	MOTHER.
BROTHER.	SISTER.

Father (O. E. *fæder*), *mother* (O. E. *mōdor*), *brother* (O. E. *brōðor*), *sister* (O. N. *systir* = O. E. *sweostor*), are words inherited from the original Aryan language.

PAPA.

MAMMA.

These words are adopted from the French. *Papa* descends from Latin, and is a childish doubling of the first syllable of *pater*. *Mamma*, Fr. *maman*, is a similar reduplication of *mā-ter*.

SON.

DAUGHTER.

Son (O. E. *su-nu*) = one brought forth, born (cp. *bairn*), from the root *su*, to bring forth; *daughter* cognate with Gr. *θυγάτηρ*.

UNCLE.

AUNT.

Uncle is from O. Fr. *uncle*, *oncle*, from Lat. *avunculus*.

Aunt from O. Fr. *ante*, Lat. *amita*. The O. E. word for uncle was (1) *eam* (M. E. *ēn*), Ger. *ohn* (*oheim*), (2) *fædera*. *Aunt* in the oldest English was *mōdrige*; cf. Welsh *modryb*, aunt, Sansk. *mātrkā*, maternal relative.

BOY.

GIRL.

Boy is not found in the oldest English; it is of frequent occurrence in Middle English writers of the fourteenth century, by whom it is applied to men occupying a low position, to menial servants: it is therefore often used as a term of contempt. The term is probably of Teutonic origin, and is cognate with O. Du. *boeve*, Platt-Deutsch *bōw*, Swed. *bof*, Ger. *bube*.

The O. E. word for boy was *cnapa* (knave), Ger. *knabe*, whence *knave-child*, a boy.

¹ Spenser has *herd-groom* = herdsman. *Guma* is cognate with Lat. *homo*.

² Spenser uses *carl* for an old man, a churl. In O. E. we have the compound *carlman* = naïf, man. Cp. Scotch *carlin*, an old woman.

³ *Wer* cognate with Lat. *vir*.

Gir-l is by some connected with Platt-Deutsch *gor*, a little child. In writers of the fourteenth century *girl* was of the common gender: thus Chaucer has '*youge girles*' = young persons; and the Middle English expression *knave-girle* occurs in the sense of *boy*.

Wench is a shortened form of the M.E. *wenche*, which in the 'Ormulum' is applied to Isaac, and was originally a word of the common gender.

In a metrical version of the Old and New Testaments of the fourteenth century, in the Vernon MS., we find *mayden* and *grom* — boy and girl:—

"Ine reche whether hit beo *mayden* other *grom*."

BACHELOR.

MAID.

The derivation of *bachelor*, which comes to us from the French, is uncertain; O. Fr. *bachelier* meant a servant, apprentice in arms, a knight-bachelor.

Maid is shortened from *maiden* (O.E. *mæden*, of neuter gender), a diminutive of the word which appears in O.E. as *mægd*, a maid.¹

KING.

QUEEN.

King (O.E. *cuning*, *cyng*) is formed with the patronymic suffix *-ing* from the word which appears in Modern English as *kin*. Hence its etymological sense seems to be 'one descended from a noble race.' *Queen* (O.E. *cwen*) at first meant wife, woman, mother.²

EARL.

COUNTESS.

Earl (O.E. *eorl*) originally meant simply 'a noble'; its use as a title is of Scandinavian origin.

Countess (O. Fr. *comtesse*, *cuntesse*) is the feminine of the word *count*, the Fr. synonym of *earl*.

MONK.

NUN.

Monk (O.E. *munu*) comes from the Greek through the Latin *monachus*. *Friar* (Middle E. *frere*, O. Fr. *freire*, Lat. *frater*) signifies a brother of a religious order.

Nun (O.E. *nunne*, *nonne*) from Latin *nonna*, a grandmother. The first *nuns* would naturally be older women.³

The old English feminine for *monk* was *mynnecc*, Middle English *minchen*.

We have the same root in Goth. *mag-us*, a boy; *mag-aps*, a young girl; O.E. *mag-a*, a son (cp. Irish *ma*), all connected with the Sansk. root *mah*, to become great, to grow.

² Cp. Goth. *qēns*, O.H. Ger. *chēna*, a woman, wife; Eng. *quean*, used only in a bad sense.

³ Cp. Gr. *παῖς*, a priest, from *papa*, a father.

WIZARD.

WITCH.

*Wizard from O. Fr. *guise-art*, *guisch-art*, from an older form *wischar* signifies a very wise man; the French word is of Teutonic origin, *guise*=Icelandic *visk-r*, wise. The suffix *-ard* is of the same origin as that in *drunk-ard*.

The oldest English words for wizard were *drý* (from the Celtic word which we have as *Druid*), and *wigelere*, one who uses *wiles*.

Witch in old writers is a word of the common gender. The O.E. is *wicce*, to which there was a corresponding masculine, *wicca-a*.¹

SLOVEN.

SLUT.

Sloven, Dutch *slof*=sloven.

Slut, Ice. *slottr* a heavy fellow.

Slattern (= *slatten*) probably means tattered, from the verb *slit* (pret. *slat*.)²

The following words, though apparently different, are etymologically connected:—

NEPHEW.

NIECE.

Nephew is from the Lat. *nepos*, a grandson, through the O. Fr. *neveu* (*nief*, *niez*), Fr. *neveu*.

Niece is the Fr. *nièce* from the Lat. *neptis*, a grand-daughter.

The O.E. *nef-a* (nephew), *nef-e* (niece), are cognate with *nepos* and *neptis*, and with *nephew* and *niece*.

The O.E. forms could not, as some have suggested, have given rise to *nephew* or *niece*, but both would assume a common form, *neve*, which is found in O.E. writers after the Conquest.

LORD.

LADY.

Lord (O.E. *hláford*=*hlíf-weard*) is a compound containing the suffix *-weard* (*-ward*)=keeper, guardian, as in O.E. *boatward*, boat-keeper. It is generally explained as *loaf* (O.E. *hlíf*) -distributor.

Lady (O.E. *hlífðige*)=loaf-kneader.

The following appear to have become associated through their accidental resemblance in sound:—

LAD.

LASS.

In Middle E. *ladde* is generally used in the sense of a man of an inferior station, a menial servant. It may possibly be a substantival use of the past participle of *lead*; one who is *led*.

¹ Cp. O.E. *webb-a*, a male weaver; *webb-e*, a female weaver.

² Robert of Brunne has *dowde*, a feminine term equivalent to *slattern*, for which we now write *cowdy*.

Lass does not occur in English writers before about A.D. 1300, and only in Northern writers. The earliest spelling is *lasce*. It is perhaps from the O.N. *laskva* (= O. Swedish *lösk* in *lösk kona*, unmarried woman), the feminine of an adjective which appears in Icel. as *löskr*. Cf. *ass* in Northern dialects for *ashes*, O.E. *asce*, and Scotch *buss* = *bush*.

In the following pairs one of the words is a compound:—

MAN.

WOMAN.

See remarks on MAN, p. 130, § 85.

BRIDEGROOM.

BRIDE.

See remarks on GROOM, p. 131, § 85.

Notice too that the masculine is formed from the feminine.

These terms are mostly applied to newly-married persons. "And is the *bride* and *bridegroom* coming home?"—SHAKESPEARE.

HUSBAND.

WIFE.

Husband is not the *hand*, *bond*, or support of the house, as some have ingeniously tried to make out, but signified originally the *master of the house*, *paterfamilias*.

Hus = house; *bond* = O.N. *bóndr*, a participial form of the verb *bíð-a*, to inhabit, cultivate; so that *bóndr* = husbandman, the possessor as well as the cultivator of the soil attached to his *house*. Bond-men came to signify (1) *peasants*, (2) *churls*, *slaves*; hence the compounds *bond-slave*, *bond-age*, which have nothing to do with the verb *bind*, or the noun *bond*.

Wife was often used in older writers in the sense of *woman*; hence it occurs in some compounds with this meaning, as *fish-wife*, *house-wife*, *hussy* = housewife; *goody* = good-wife.

SIRE.

MADAM.

Sir is from O. Fr. *sires*, Fr. *sire*, Lat. *senior*.

Madam = Fr. *madama* = my lady = *mea domina*.

Spenser frequently used *dame* in the sense of lady.

Sire and *dam* are still applied to the father and mother of animals.

Grandsire and *beldam* are sometimes found for grandfather and grandmother.

Names of Animals.

BOAR.

SOW.

Boar (O.E. *bír*), originally only one of many names for the male swine. *Eofor* (cp. Dan. *ever-swin*) and *beorh* died out very early; the latter still survives in *barrow-pig*. *Sow* (O.E. *sugu*) is cognate with Lat. *sus*.

The general term of this species was *Swine*, O.E. *swin*, cp. *swinste* = pigsty.

Gris (*grise*, *grice*), from O.N. *gris*, is used by our older writers for a young pig.

Ferrow = O.E. *feorh* = a little pig.

BULL.

COW.

Bull (Middle English *bulle*) is not found in the oldest English. It probably comes from the Icelandic *bofl*.

Bullock (O.E. *bulluc*) is properly a little bull, a bull-calf.

Cow = O.E. *cū*,¹ cognate with Gr. *βοῦς*, Lat. *bo*, ox.

* The Fr. *bœuf* also signifies *bull*. The general term for the species was *Ox* (O.E. *oxa*). There were other special designations, as *steer* (O.E. *stēor*), Ger. *stier*.

Heifer = O.E. *heah-fore*, *heafre*, of which the first syllable signifies high, great. The second element is connected with Ger. *farse*, young cow. Cp. *heah-dēor* = roe-buck.

BUCK.

DOE.

Buck = O.E. *buc* and *bucca*; *doe* = O.E. *dā*. In O.E. *hæfer* signifies he-goat, cognate with Lat. *capr*; *rāh*, *rā* = roe = *caprea*.

Kid = O.N. *kíð*; an O.E. word for *kid* was *ticcen*, Ger. *zick-lein*.

HART.

ROE.

Hart, O.E. *heorut*, *heort* = horned; cp. *ceruus*. *Hind* = *cerva*.

Deer (O.E. *dēor*) was once a general term for an animal (wild), hence Shakespeare talks of "rats and mice, and such small deer."

STAG.

HIND.

Stag = Icel. *steggr*, which was applied to the males of many species. In the English provincial dialects *stag* or *steg* = a gander or a cock.

Bailey has *stagg-ard*, a hart in its fourth year.

RAM

WETHER

EWE.

Ram (O.E. *ramm*) is probably cognate with O.N. *rammr*, strong.

Wether (O.E. *wēðer*), corresponds to Gothic *wīþrus*, lamb; originally "a yearling animal," from the Indo-European *wet-*, a year (Gr. *ἔτος*); cp. Lat. *vitulus*, a calf.

Ewe (O.E. *cowu*, *eow*), cognate with Lat. *ovis*.

HOUND.

BITCH.

Hound = O.E. *hund*, cognate with Lat. *canis*.

Dog is in O.E. *dogga*, *dogga*. It is found in the cognate dialects, O.Dan. *dogge*, Icel. *doggr*. *Tike* occurs sometimes in early English for a dog.

Bitch = O.E. *bicc-e*.

¹Wickliffe has *shce-oxe*.

STALLION.

MARE.

Stallion (O.Fr. *estalon*) has supplanted the O.E. *hengest* and *stēda* (steed).

Horse (O.E. *hors*) was originally of the neuter gender.

Mare, the feminine of an original masculine, *marh*.

COLT. }
FOAL }

FILLY.

Foal, O.E. *folā*, Ger. *füllen*, Lat. *pullus*.

COCK.

HEN.

Hen had a corresponding masculine, *hana*, in O.E. : cp. Ger. *hahn* and *henne*.

GANDER.

GOOSE.

Gander (O.E. *gan-d-ra*) and *Goose* (O.E. *gūs* = *gans*, *gāns*) are related words.

The *d* in *gander* is merely euphonic as in *thunder* ; *ra* is the suffix and the root is *gan* = *gans*, a goose ; cp. Icel. *gús*, goose ; *gasi*, gander ; also Ger. *gans*, Gr. *χην*, Latin *anser* (= *hanser*).

DRAKE.

DUCK.

Duck = O.E. *doke* = diver (connected with the verb to *duck*, Middle Dutch *duiken*, O.H.G. *tūchan*, to dive, plunge) has no etymological connection with *Drake*.

The word *drake* is cognate with L. Ger. *drake* : it appears compounded with O.H.G. *anut* (= O.E. *ened*) duck, in O.H.G. *antrahho*, whence Mod. Ger. *enterich*, drake.

RUFF.

REEVE.

Reeve seems a feminine of *Ruff*.

MILTER.

SPAWNER.

DRONE.

BEE.

87. II. The Gender marked by difference of termination.

The feminine is usually formed from the masculine.

A. Obsolete modes of forming the feminine :—

(1) By the suffix *-en*.

In the oldest English *-en* was a common feminine suffix, as—

M.
Cās-cre (emperor)
Fox
God (a god)
Manna (man servant)
Wulf (wolf)

F.
Cāser-n (empress).
Fyx-en (vixen).
Gyden (goddess).
Menn-en (woman-servant).
Wulf-en (she-wolf)

Fyxen, *gyden* do not derive directly from *fox*, *god*, for then we should have '*fexen*,' '*geden*,' the vowel-change of *o* being *e* (cf. § 58); the feminines of *fox*, *god* were, in Teutonic, *fuhsinī*, *gudinī*, because the original *u* was not changed into *o* when an *i* followed in the next syllable. *Fuhsinī* and *gudinī*, then, were regularly changed into *fyxen* and *gyden*.

In modern English we have only preserved *one* word with this suffix—**vixen**.

The *v* in *vixen* is Southern, cf. § 48.

In Scotch, *carl-in* = an old woman.

In the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries we find a few more of these feminines, as—*minchen*,¹ a nun; *wolvenc*, a she-wolf; *dovenc*, a she-dove; *schalkene*, a female servant, from *schalk* (O.E. *sealc*), a man-servant, which exists in *marschal* and *seneschal*.

(2) By the suffix **-ster**.

In the oldest English we have a numerous class of words ending in **-ster** (*stre*, *stere*), corresponding to masculine forms in **-ere**.

M.		F.
bæc-ere	(baker)	bæc-estre.
fiðel-ere	(fiddler)	fiðel-estre.
hearp-ere	(harper)	hearp-estre.
sang-ere	(singer)	sang-estre.
séam-ere	(sewer)	séam-estre.
tæpp-ere	(bar-man)	tæpp-estre.
webb-ere	(weaver)	webb-estre.

Up to the end of the thirteenth century **-ster** was a characteristic sign of the feminine gender, and by its means new feminines could be always formed from the masculine.

¹ This suffix is found in several of the Aryan languages: cp. Ger. *säng-er* (singer) and *sängerin*; *fuchs* (fox) and *fuchsin*; Gr. *ἡρώτην*, hero-ine (O. Fr. *héro-ine*); Latin *regina*.

Margravine and *Landgravine* contain the Romance suffix **-ine** (as in *heroine*) and not the Teutonic **-in**.

Lithuanian *gandras*, stork; *gandr-enc* (f.).

Sansk. *Indra* (name of a god); *Indranī* (the wife of Indra).

The Sanskrit shows that *n* is no mark of gender, but of possession; the *f* is the sign of gender, which appears in Lithuanian **-ene**, but is lost in the English **-en**, Ger. **-inn**.

In the twelfth and thirteenth centuries we find some curious forms, as—

bellexingestre, a female bell-ringer.
twic-thenestre, a weekly woman-servant.
hordestre, a cellaress.
wasshestre, a washwoman.

In the fourteenth century we find the suffix *-ster* giving place to the Norman-French *-ess*, and there is consequently a want of uniformity in the employment of this termination. Thus Robert of Brunne uses *sangster*, songster, as a masculine.¹ In Purvey's Recension of Wicliffe's translation of the Scriptures we find *songstere* used for the masculine singer; and Wicliffe uses *webbestere* as a masculine.

Daunstere (a female dancer), *hostestre* (hostess), *tombestere* (= *daunstere*) are hybrid words, and etymologically as bad as *sleeresse*, &c.

In the 'Pilgrimage of the Lyf of Manhode' (beginning of fifteenth century), we have only one word in *-ster* as the name of a female, viz. *hangestre* = the feminine of *hangman* or *hangere* (p. 144).

The following feminines in *-ess* occur in this work:—*meyeresse*, *enquerouresse*, *bigilouresse*, *condyeresse*, *constablesse*, *jogelouresse*, *forgeresse*, *skorcheresse*, *enchantouresse*, *bacouresse*, *graveresse*, *gold-smithesse*, *disporteresse*.

Still a good number of words with this suffix are to be found as feminines late in the fifteenth century, as—

kempster = <i>pectrix</i> .	baxter = <i>pistrix</i> .
webster = <i>textrix</i> .	salster = <i>salinaria</i> .
dryster = <i>siccatrix</i> .	brawdster = <i>palmaria</i> .
sewster = <i>sutrix</i> .	huxter = <i>auxiatrix</i> .

We have now only one feminine word with this suffix, viz. **spinster**: but *huckster* was used very late as a feminine. *Hucksterer* and *man-huckster* are new masculines formed from the feminine.

When the suffix *-ster* was felt no longer to mark the gender, some new feminines were formed by the addition of the Romance French *-ess* to the English *-ster*, as

¹ The Northern dialects of the twelfth and thirteenth centuries seldom employ this suffix, and it is often found, as in Robert of Brunne, in masculine nouns (marking the agent).

In the 'Ormulum' we find *huccesterr* = *huckster*, which is probably masculine.

In Wicliffe we find signs that this suffix was going out of use to mark gender in the double forms that he employs, as *dwell-stere* and *dweller-esse*, *sleestere* and *sleeresse*, *daunstere* and *daunseresse*.

songs-tr-ess and **seams-tr-ess**,¹ which hybrid forms are etymologically speaking, *double* feminines.

The suffix *-ster* now often marks the agent with more or less a sense of contempt and depreciation, probably under the influence of the Late Latin suffix *-aster* in such words as *poetaster*; cf. the French suffix *-âtre* (Old French *-astre*) in *bleuâtre*, *rougeâtre*, &c.; as *punster*, *trickster*, *gamester*.

In Elizabethan writers we find *drugster*, *hackster* (swordsmen), *teamster*, *seedster* (sower), *throwster*, *rhymester*, *whipster*, &c.

B. Romance suffixes.

To replace the obsolete English modes of forming the feminine, several suffixes are used to mark the gender.

(1) Lat. **-or** (m.), and **-ix** (f.).

M.	F.
adjutor	adjutrix.
testator	testatrix.
&c.	&c.

(2) Romance **-ine**.

M.	F.
hero	heroine.
landgrave	landgravine.
margrave	margravine.

(3) Romance **-a**.

M.	F.
sultan	sultan-a.
signor	signor-a.
infant	infant-a.

In M.E. the Romance fem. suffix *-ere* is used in *chambre*, Fr. *chambrière* = chamberwoman; *lavend*, Fr. *lavandière* = laundress. "God hath made me (Penitence) his *chambre* and his *lavend*."—*Pilgrimage*.

¹ Howell uses *hucksteress* and *spinstress* as feminines. Ben Jonson uses *seamster* and *songs-ten* to express the feminine; while Shakespeare uses *spinster* sometimes as = spinner.

(4) The French **-ess** is, however, the ordinary feminine suffix, and the only living mode of forming fresh feminines; **-ess** is Med. Lat. *issa*, which occurs also in the Old English *abbud-isse* = abbess.

In the twelfth and thirteenth centuries we find *contesse* = countess; *emperesse* = empress. In the fourteenth century **-ess** began to take the place of the English **-ster**, and was no doubt at first added only to Romance words; after a time it was added to Teutonic as well as to borrowed words.

In the Elizabethan period we find that it was added more frequently to distinguish the feminine than at present.

Spenser has *championess*, *vassalless*, *warriouress*, &c. Chapman uses *heroess*, *butleress*, *waggoness*, *rectress*, &c. (See Trench's "English, Past and Present," p. 156.)

The suffix **-ess** is not used in Eng. to form new names of female animals; such words as *lioness*, *tigress*, &c., were taken from Old French.

(1) The suffix **-ess** is added to the simple masculine, as—

M.	F.
baron	baron-ess.
giant	giant-ess.
&c.	&c.

(2) The masculine ending **-is** is dropped before the suffix, as—

M.	F.
cater- is	cater-ess
sorcer- er	sorcer-ess.
&c.	&c.

(3) The masculine ending (**-or**, **-er**) is shortened before the addition of **-ess** :—

M.	F.
actor	actress.
conductor	conductress.
&c.	&c.

(4) *Duchess* is from O.Fr. *ducesse*, *duchesse*; *marchioness*, from Med. Lat. *marçhio*; *mistress*, Middle E. *maisteresse*, from *master*, Middle E. *maister*.

88. III. Gender is sometimes denoted by composition.

In the oldest English we find traces of a qualifying word compounded with a general term, as *man-cild*=man-child, boy; *wif-man*=woman; *cwæn-fugol*, a female bird. In later times we find *cnave-child*=boy.

(1) By using the words **male** and **female**.

M.	F.
male-servant	female-servant.

(2) By using **man**, **woman**, or **maid**.

M.	F.
man-servant	maid-servant.
men-singers	women-singers.

Sometimes we find *servant-man*, *servant-maid*, *washer-woman*, *milk-man*, *milk-maid*.

(3) By the use of **he** and **she**, mostly in the names of animals.

M.	F.
he-goat	she-goat.
he-bear.	she-bear.

"þe bestes all, bath *seo* and *he*."—*Cursor Mundi*, 619, 10205.

"A clene he-lambe."—*Ibid.* 6067.

In Shakespeare's time *he* and *she* were used as nouns; and not only did people talk of *he's* and *she's*, for males and females, but even of the *fairest he* and the *fairest she*; whence *he* and *she* are also compounded with substantives, especially to convey a contemptuous or ridiculous sense, as "Howl, you *he* monks and you *she* monks."—DRANT'S *Sermons*.

Ep. he-devil, she-devil.

- (4) *Dog* and *bitch*, as *dog-fox*, *bitch-fox*, &c.
- (5) *Buck* and *doe*, as *buck-rabbit*, *doe-rabbit*, &c.
- (6) *Boar* and *sow*, as *boar-pig*, *sow-pig*.
- (7) *Ewe* in *ewe-lamb* (Gen. xxi. 18).
- (8) *Colt* and *filly*, as *colt-foal*, *filly-foal*.
- (9) *Cock* and *hen*, as *cock-sparrow*, *hen-sparrow*.

"Take hede of those egges that be blout on bothe endes, and ther shal be *henne chickens*, and those that be longe and sharpe on bothe endes shal be *cocke chickens*."—L. ANDREWE, *Babys Book*, p. 222.

In names of animals the class-name is frequently treated as neuter, as "In *its* natural state the hedgehog is nocturnal."

So also in words denoting children without denoting the sex, as *child*, *baby*, &c.

II. NUMBER.

89. Some languages, as Sanskrit, Greek, &c., have three numbers, *singular* (marking one object), *plural* (more than one), *dual* (two).

The oldest English had the *dual* number only in the personal pronouns, which we no longer preserve.

90. In the oldest English there were several plural endings, *-as*, *-an*, *-u*, *-a*, *-o*. After the Norman Conquest these were reduced to *-es*, *-en*, *-e*; (2) to *-es*, *-en*; and finally the suffix *-es* or *-s* became the ordinary plural ending.

Thus *-as* was originally only the plural sign of one declension of masculine nouns, as, *fisc*, fish, pl. *fiscas*.

When *-as* became *-es*, it still remained for the most part a distinct syllable, as in the following passage in Chaucer:—

"And with his *stremes* dryeth it the *greves*
The silver *dropes* hongyng on the *leeves*."

Spenser has several instances.

"In wine and'oyles they wash his woundes wide"—*F. Q.* i. 5. 17.

Hawes has many instances of the fuller form *-es*, as—

"The *knights* all unto their *armes* went."—*Pastime of Pleasure*, p. 131.

91. Though we have only one plural ending, we make a very vigorous use of it. We have replaced foreign plurals by it, as *insects*, *indexes*, *choruses*, *ethics*, &c. We add it to adjectives used as substantives, as *goods*, *evils*, *blacks*, *sweets*, *vitals*, *commans*,¹ &c.; to verbal nouns, as *cuttings*, *scrapings*, &c.; and to pronouns, as *others*, *noughts*.

92. The reduction of *-es* to *-s* causes the suffix to come into direct contact with the last letter of the substantive to which it is added, and by which it is affected.

(a) If the substantive ends in a voiced mute, a liquid, or a vowel, *s* is pronounced voiced as *tubs*, *lads*, *stags*, *hills*, *hens*, *feathers*, *trees*, *days*, *folios*.

(b) If the substantive ends in a breath mute, *s* takes the breath sound, as *traps*, *pits*, *stacks*.

(c) The fuller form *-es* is retained when the substantive ends in "hisses and buzzes" such as *ss*, *sh*, *x*, *ch*; as *glasses*, *wishes*, *foxes*, *churches*, *ages*, *judges*.

(d) Words of pure English origin ending in *-f*, *-fe*, *-lf*, with a preceding long vowel (except *oo*), make their plurals in

¹ There is an inconvenience attached to these plurals, *i.e.* they have more than one meaning: thus, *blacks* is used for *black eyes* (TREVISIA), *black draperies* (BACON), *society particles*, and *black-a-moors*, *i.e.* black Moors; there were also *white Moors*. Cp. *familiar*s = familiar friends and familiar spirits.

While we can talk of our *bettors*, our *superiors*, we cannot, like Heywood, speak of our *olde*s and *biggers*, nor complain, with the author of 'The Booke of Nurture,' of not knowing our "*breefes* from *longes*" = short and long vowels. Cp. "my *worthies* and my *valiants*."
—DRANT.

-ves, pronounced -vz, as *leaf, leavec*; *thief, thieves*; *wife, wives*; *shelf, shelves*; *wolf, wolves*.

•In *roof, hoof, reef*, the *f* is retained and *s* only added. We sometimes find *elvs*, instead of *elves*.

(e) In Romance words, *f* remains unchanged, and the plural is formed by *s*, as *briefs, chiefs, griefs, fises, strifes*.

Exceptions.—In Middle English we find *prooves, kerchieves, beeves*.

(f) Words ending in -ff, -rf, form the plural by the addition of *s*, and the *f* is left unchanged, as *cliff, cliffs*; *dwarf, dwarfs*.

We sometimes find *staves, wharves, dwarves, scarves, mastives*, written for *staffs, dwarfs, wharfs, scarfs, mastiffs*; and in old writers, *turves* for *turfs*. In Rastall's *Chronicles*, 1529, we find *torves*, pl. of *turf*. *Turvas* occurs several times in Thomas Hardy's novel 'The Return of the Native.'

(g) Words terminating in a single *y* keep the old orthography, and *y* is changed into *i*, as *fly, flies*; *city, cities*.

In earlier English the singular ended in -ie, as *flie, citie*.

Y remains unchanged if it is preceded by another written vowel, and *s* (pronounced *z*) only is added, as *boy, boys*; *play, plays*; *valley, valleys*.

Until recently *vallies, nonkies, pullies*, &c., were not uncommon; *monies* is still often found, though avoided by careful writers. *Alkali* has for its plural *alkalies*.

(h) Words in -o (not those in -io), mostly of foreign origin, form the plural in -es (sounded as *z*), as *echoes, heroes, potatoes*.

Words in -io add *s*, as *folios, saglios*.

A few of later origin in -o and -oo add *s*, as *dominos, grottos, tyros, cuckoos, Hindoos*.

(i) Particles used as substantives take *-s* or *-es* for their plural, as *ups* and *downs*; *ayes* and *noes* (or *aye's* and *no's*); the *O's* and *Macs*; *pros* and *cons*; *et-ceteras*.

(j) In compounds the plural is formed by *s*, as *blackbirds*, *paymasters*.

When the adjective (after the French method) is the last part of the compound, the sign of the plural is added to the substantive, as *attorneys-general*, *courts-martial*. So in prepositional compounds, as *sons-in-law*, *fathers-in-law*, *lookers-on*, *men-of-war*.

(k) When *full* is compounded with a noun, *s* is added to the last element, as *handfuls*, *cupfuls*; but not if the terms are kept distinct, as "*two handfuls of marbles*;" "we have our *hands full* of work."

In Old English such forms as *handful*, *shipful* were mostly regarded as adjective-compounds, and did not take the plural sign.

93. Plural formed by vowel-change—

foot,	O.E.	<i>fōt</i> ;	plural	feet,	O.E.	<i>fēt</i> .
tooth,	O.E.	<i>tōð</i> ;	plural	teeth,	O.E.	<i>teð</i> .
mouse,	O.E.	<i>mūs</i> ;	plural	mice,	O.E.	<i>mýs</i> .
louse,	O.E.	<i>lūs</i> ;	plural	lice,	O.E.	<i>lys</i> .
goose,	O.E.	<i>gās</i> ;	plural	geese,	O.E.	<i>gēs</i> .
man,	O.E.	<i>man</i> ;	plural	men,	O.E.	<i>men</i> .

All these words once had a plural ending. The vowel of the plural suffix, though lost, has left its influence in the change of the root-vowel ; cp. O.Sax. *fōti* = feet, *bōci* = O.E. *bēc* = books.

See remarks on Vowel-change, § 58.

94. Plurals in *-en* (O.E. *-an*).

There was, in O.E., as well as in the other Teutonic languages, a declension exactly answering to that of ἡγεμών in Greek, *homo* in Latin.

Greek.	Latin.	Gothic.	Old English.
ἡγεμών	homo ²	hana ³ (cock)	han-a
ἡγεμόν-ος	hom-in-is	han-in-s	han-an
ἡγεμόν-ι	hom-in-i	han-in	han-an
ἡγεμόν-α	hom-in-em	han-an	hanan
ἡγεμόν-ες	hom-in-es	han-an-s	han-anf
ἡγεμόν-ων	hom-in-um	han-an-e	han-en-a
ἡγεμόν-σι ¹	hom-in-ibus	han-am (from han-an-um)	han-um
ἡγεμόν-ας	hom-in-es	han-an-s	han-an

(1) There were a larger number of these words in the oldest English which formed the plural in *-an*; only *one* of these plurals is now in common use, *oxen* = O.E. *ox-an*.

Shoon, O.E. genitive plural *sceōna*, and *hosen*, O.E. *hosan*, are more or less obsolete.

Spenser frequently uses *eyen* = O.E. *éagan*, Provincial English *een*; and *foen* = O.E. *fūn*, foes.

(2) Some words that now form their plural in *n* had originally plurals ending in a vowel, to which *n* has been added.

Kine.—The *e* is no part of the plural, as we find in Middle English *kin* and *ken*. **Cow** originally made its plural by vowel-change, O.E. *cū*, a cow, plural *cŭ*. Cp. O.E. *mūs* (mouse), *mýs* (mice).

In Middle English we find *ky*, *kye*, *kine*, still preserved in the North of England.

Child-r-e-n is an interesting relic of what was once a peculiar declension. Corresponding to nouns like γέν-ος in Greek, *gen-us* in Latin, there were nouns in O.E. which were formed by the suffix *-r* (from Germanic *-z*, Indo-European *-s*), such as *salor* (hall), a variant of *sele*, *dōgor* (day), a variant of *dæg*, *sigor* (victory), a variant of *sige*. But while in these nouns the old suffix *r* appears both in singular and plural, others dropped it in the singular, and kept it in the

¹ From ἡγεμόν-σι

² From hom-on.

³ From hanan.

plural, as in *lomb* (lamb)—*lombru* (lambs), *cealf* (calf)—*cealfu*, *æg* (egg)—*æggu*, *cild* (child)—*cildru*.

In the twelfth and thirteenth centuries we find *cild-r-y* converted into (1) *child-re* and (2) *child-r-e-n*.

In the fourteenth century we find in the Northern dialects *childer* = children, where the *-re* has become *-er* (cp. O.E. *ealra* = (1) *alre*, (2) *aller*, (3) *alder*).

In Middle-English of the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries we find *calvren*, *lambren*, and *eyren* (eggs).¹

Brethren:—In the oldest English the plural of *brōðor* was *brōðru* (*brōðra*). In the thirteenth century this became (1) *brothr-e*, (2) *brothr-e-n* (*brotheren*), (3) *brethr-e*, (4) *brethr-e-n*, (5) *brotheres* (*brothers*).

In the Northern dialects in the fourteenth century we find *brethre* becoming *brether*.²

The *e* in *brethren* seems to have arisen from the dative singular (*brother*).

In the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries, we find that the oldest English *dohtru* became *dohtren*, *doughtren*, *dehtren*, and *dezter*.

Sister and *mother* once belonged to the same declension.

TREEN = O.E. *trēow-u* is used by Sackville ("Induction")³ :—

"The wrathful Winter, 'proaching on apace,
With blustering blasts had all ybar'd the *treen*."

95. Some words, originally neuter and flexionless in the plural, have the same form for the singular and the plural.

1. **Deer** = O.E. *dēor*, pl. *dēor*.
2. **Sheep** = O.E. *scēap*, pl. *scēap*.

¹ Cp. Caxton's story of a Mr. Sheffield who asked for *eggs* at the Forceland, and could not get them, because nobody knew what he meant by it; "at last another said that he wolde have *cyren*, then the good wyf sayd that she understod hym wel."—CAXTON'S *Eneydos*, Prologue.

² "These be my mother, *brether*, and sisters."—Bp. PILKINGTON (died 1575).

³ *Sistren* occurs in the *Fardell of Facion* (1555).

3. **Swine** = O.E. *swīn*, pl. *'swīn*.

4. **Neat** = O.E. *nēat* (used collectively to include
"steer, heifer, calf").¹

This class once included the following words :—*folk*, *year*,
yoke, *head*, *score*, *pound*, *hair*, *horse*,² &c.

96. Many substantives are treated as plurals and take no plural sign, as—

(1) Words used in a collective sense : *cavalry*, *infantry*,
harlotry, *fish*, *fowl*, *cattle*, *poultry*.

Capgrave uses *gander* as a plural. In the *Fardell of Facion* we read that "*quail* and *mallard* are not but for the richer sort."

(2) Names expressive of quantity, mass, weight (when preceded by numerals), as : *pair*, *brace*, *couple*, *dozen*, *score*,
gross, *quire*, *ream*, *stone*, *tin*, *last*, *foot*, *fathom*, *mile*,
chaldron, *bushel*.

Also *cannon*,³ *shot*, *shilling*, *mark* ; *rod*, and *furlong* (*Fardell of Facion*).

In the phrase **horse and foot** we have either a contraction of (a) *horsemen* and *footmen*, or of (b) *men on horse* (Middle E. *men an horse*) and *men on foot* (Middle E. *men a foot*).

97. Some substantives have a double plural form, with different meaning, as—

Brothers (by blood), *brethren*³ (of an order of community).

Cloths (sorts of cloth) ; *clothes* (garments, clothing).

Dies (a stamp for coining, &c.) ; *dice* (for gaming).

¹ In earlier E. *goat* is treated as a plural :—"Jabel departed the flokkis of *scheep* from the flokkis of *goot*."—CAPGRAVE, p. 8. Also *worm* :—"All kindes of beastes, fowle, and *worme*."—*Fardell of Facion*.

² "Tame and well-ordered *horse*, but wild and unfortunate children."
—ASCHAM.

³ This distinction is, of course, comparatively recent

Peas (the pl. of *pea*); *pease* (collective). *Pea*, O.E. *pisa*, is derived from Lat. *pisum*.¹ In M.E. we find pl. *pesen* (and *peses*). The *s* belongs to the root, and is no inflexion. When the old pl. ending was lost, *pease* was looked upon as a plural, and a new singular, *pea*, was coined.¹

Pennies (a number of separate coins); *pence* (collective). *Penny*, O.E. *penig*, pl. *penegas* (*pennyges*, *pans*, *þens*), without any distinction of meaning. When *pence* is compounded with a numeral as the name of a separate coin, we can regard it as a singular, and make it take the plural inflexion, as *two sixpences*.

98. Foreign words usually take the English plural. Some few keep their original plural, as—

	Sing.	Plural.
Latin (1)	<i>arcanum</i> <i>addendum</i> <i>datum</i> <i>erratum</i> <i>stratum</i> <i>magus</i> <i>radius</i> <i>minutia</i> <i>species</i> &c.	<i>arcana</i> <i>addenda</i> <i>data</i> <i>errata</i> <i>strata</i> <i>magi</i> <i>radii</i> <i>minutiae</i> <i>species</i> &c.
Lat. from Greek (2)	<i>axis</i> <i>basis</i> <i>ellipsis</i> &c.	<i>axes</i> <i>bases</i> <i>ellipses</i> &c.
Romanic (3)	<i>monsieur</i> <i>bandit</i> &c.	<i>messieurs</i> <i>banditti</i> &c.
Hebrew (4)	<i>cherub</i> <i>seraph</i>	<i>cherubim</i> <i>seraphim</i>

¹ Spenser has—

Surrey—

“Not worth a *pese*.”

“a *pese*

“Above a pearl in price.”

“Not worth two *peason*” = *peasen*.

Some of these have the English plural, as—*appendixes, calixes, vortexes, criterions, automations, phenomenons, memorandumums, spectrums, focuses, funguses, similes, beaus, seraphs, cherubs*, as well as their original plurals, *appendices, calices, vortices, criteria, automata, phenomena, memoranda, spectra, foci, fungi, similia, beaux, seraphim, cherubim* (and *seraphin, cherubin*).¹

99 Some have two plurals with different meanings, as—
indexes (of a book) *indices* (signs in algebra).
geniuses (men of genius) *gæii* (spirits, supernatural beings).

100. Many substantives are used only in the plural, as—

(1) Substantives denoting things that consist of more than one part, and consequently always express plurality, as—

(a) Parts of the body : *lights* (a synonym of *lungs* ; the latter, however, has a singular), *entrails, chitterlings*.

(b) Clothing : *breeches, slops, trowsers, drawers*.

(c) Tools, instruments, implements, &c. : *shears, scissors, pliers, snuffers, tongs, scales, &c.* (Shakespeare uses *ballance* as a plural. "A peyre of ballaunce."—DRANT.)

(2) Names of things considered in the mass or aggregate, as—*embers, lees, molasses*.

Many foreign words are used only in the plural, as *origines, faces, literati, prolegomena, &c.*

101. The English plural sign sometimes replaces the original plural, as *nomads, pleiads, hyads, rhinoceroses*.

Of a similar kind are—

¹ *Cherubims* and *seraphims* occur in Elizabethan English.

abstergents (= *abstergentia*).

analec's (= *analecta*).

arms (= *arma*).

annals (= *annales*), &c.

102. The plurals of some substantives differ in meaning from the singulars, as *antic*, *antics*; *beef*, *beeves*; *chap*, *chaps*; *draught*, *draughts*; *checker*, *checkers*; *forfeit*, *forfeits*; *record*, *records*; *scale*, *scales*; *spectacle*, *spectacles*; *grain*, *grains*; *ground*, *grounds*; *water*, *waters*; *copper*, *coppers*; *iron*, *irons*; *compass*, *compasses*; *return*, *returns*; &c. &c.

So too verbal substantives, as *cutting* and *cuttings*; *sweeping* and *sweepings*, &c.

103. Many *adjectives* used as substantives form their plural regularly, as *good*, *goods*; *captive*, *captives*; *lunatic*, *lunatics*; cp. *commons*, *eatables*, *bettors*, *superiors*, *odds*, *extras*.

To this class, with English plural substituted for foreign adjective plural, belong *acoustics*, *analytics*, *ethics*, *optics*, *politics*.

104. Some plural forms are sometimes treated as singulars, as *amends*,¹ *bellows*,² *gallows*,³ *means*,⁴ *news*,⁵ *odds*,⁶ *pains*,⁷ *sessions*, *shambles*, *small-pox*,⁸ *tidings*,⁹ *wages*.

Most of these are comparatively late plurals, and the singular was once used where we employ the plural.

105. **Alms, eaves, riches**, though treated as plurals, are singular in form.

¹ *Amends* from Fr. *amende*. Robert of Brunne has "*the amends was*."

² Middle E. "a gret belygh;" "a peyre belyes."—*Pilgrimage*, pp. 111, 116.

³ Originally pl. = O.E. *galgan*.

⁴ *Means* (Fr. *moyen*, Lat. *medium*).

⁵ *News* (Fr. *nouvelles*, Lat. *nova*).

⁶ *Odds* in *it is odds* = it is most probable.

⁷ In the singular *pain* = suffering; in the plural = sufferings, trouble.

⁸ *-Pox* = *-poc-s*; as in *chicken-pock*, *pock-mark*.

⁹ *Tidings*. O.E. *tidende*. The plural is rare in O.E.

Alms = Gr. ἐλεημοσύνη; O.E. *ælmesse*, *almesse*, *almes*. In Middle English we find pl. *elmesſen*, *almeſſes*.¹

• **Riches** = O.Fr. *richesce*; Middle English *richeise*, *richesse*. In Middle English we find pl. *richesses*. *Alms* and *riches* are etymologically no more plurals than are *largess* and *noblesse*.

Eaves = O.E. *yfes*, *efese* = margin, edge.

We sometimes find *esen*-droppers = caves-droppers; *esen* = M.E. *efesen*, caves.

106. **Summons** is a singular form (= O.Fr. *semonse*; Middle English *somons*), and is usually treated as such, making the pl. *summonses*.

107. Proper names form the plural regularly, except where a plural form is adopted from the foreign language to which the name belongs, as *Horatius*, the *Horatii*.

108. Designations of nationality which were originally adjectives take no plural sign if ending in a sibilant, as *Dutch*, *English*, *Scotch*, *Chinese* (but Milton has *Chineses*).

109. In designations of persons formed by two substantives, the former having a qualifying function, only the last adds *s* for the plural, as *master bakers*, *brother squires*, the *two doctor Johns*.

We, however, may say the *Miss Browns* or the *Misses Brown*.

Where two titles are united the last now usually takes the plural, as *major-generals*: a few old expressions sometimes occur in which both words, following the French idiom, take the plural, as *knights-templars*, *lords-lieutenants*, *lords-justices*.

¹ Cp. "he asked *an alms*." (Acts iii. 3.) "All a common *riches*."
--JOHN FLETCHER, *Wit without Money*.

110. Many geographical names are frequently plural in form, as *Athens*, *Thebes* (but these are singular in construction), *the Netherlands*, *Indies*, *Azores*, *Alps*,

III. CASE.

111. In some languages nouns (substantives and adjectives) take different forms (cases) in different relations in a sentence.

The movable or variable terminations of a noun are called its *case-endings*.

"At Athens, the term *case*, or *ptōsis*, had a philosophical meaning; at Rome, *casus* was merely a literal translation; the original meaning of *fall* was lost, and the word dwindled down to a mere technical term. In the philosophical language of the Stoics, *ptōsis*, which the Romans translated by *casus*, really meant 'fall'; that is to say, the inclination or relation of one idea to another, the falling or resting of one word on another. Long and angry discussions were carried on as to whether the name of *ptōsis*, or fall, was applicable to the nominative; and every true Stoic would have scouted the expression of *casus rectus*, because the subject, or the nominative, as they argued, did not fall or rest on anything else, but stood erect, the other words of a sentence leaning or depending on it. All this is lost to us when we speak of cases."—MAX MULLER.

112. The oldest English had six cases: Nominative, Vocative, Accusative, Genitive, Dative, Instrumental.

The suffixes forming cases descend from the original Aryan language, but their forms in Old English are in most instances greatly changed from the primitive type.

The nominative ending was *s* (as in *rex* = *reg-s*).

The dative suffix was originally a diphthong ending in *-i*.

The ablative termination was *d*, as Sansk. *açvāt* (for *-ād*) = O. Lat. *equod*, from a horse.

The locative had the ending *i*.

The instrumental, expressing the relation by or with, ended in *a* or in *-mi*.

The accusative had the letter *m* for its suffix.

The genitive had two endings, *-es* (*-os*, *-s*), and *-sio* (*-so*).

"The Latin *genitivus* (genitive) is a mere blunder, for the Greek word *genikē* could never mean *genitivus*. *Genitivus*, if it is meant to

express the case of origin or birth, would in Greek have been called *gennētikē*, not *genikē*. Nor does the *genitive* express the relation of son to father. For though we may say 'the son of the father,' we may likewise say, 'the father of the son.' *Genikē*, in Greek, had a much wider, a much more philosophical meaning. It meant *casus generalis*, the general case, or rather the case which expresses the genus or kind. This is the real power of the *genitive*. . . . The termination of the genitive is, in most cases, identical with those derivative suffixes by which substantives are changed into adjectives."—MAX MÜLLER.

POSSESSIVE CASE.

113. The O.E. case-endings gradually dwindled into *one*, namely the possessive, representing the old genitive case. This decay of the case-endings was brought about by the change of the vowels *a*, *o*, *u* into *e*, and by the dropping of final *n*, in consequence of which changes the cases of a great many substantives were no longer distinguishable from one another. Thus, for instance, the O.E. feminine *lufu* (love) had the following declension:—

Sing.	Plural.
N. <i>lufu</i>	N. <i>lufa</i> .
G. <i>lufe</i>	G. <i>lufa</i> .
D. <i>lufe</i>	D. <i>lufum</i> .
A. <i>lufe</i>	A. <i>lufa</i> .

In consequence of *a* and *u* becoming *e* in Middle English, and further of *-um* (dative) becoming first *-em*, then *-en*, and, lastly, *-e*, all the cases of *lufu* were alike. This change took place in all the feminine substantives of the *ā*-declension and of other substantives, e.g. in *synu* (son).

The only endings which survived the general decay were the genitive sing. (*-es*) and the nominative and accusative plural (*-es*) of substantives belonging to the *o*-declension, and the gen. plural of substantives belonging to the *n*-declension, as will be seen from the following instances.

	Old E.	
	Sing.	Plural.
N.	smið	smið-as.
G.	smið-es	*smið-a.
D.	smið-e.	smið-um.
A.	smið	smið-as.

The nominative and accusative have now no flexional suffixes to distinguish them, and their position in a sentence, or the sense, is the only means we have of distinguishing them from one another.

114. In the oldest English there were various declensions, as in Latin and Greek : so there were different genitive suffixes (*a*) for the singular, (*b*) for the plural.

The suffix *es* originally belonged to the genitive sing. of some masculine and neuter substantives ; it was not the genitive sign of the feminine until the tenth century, and then for the most part only in the Northern dialect (cp. *Lady-day* with *Lord's day*).

If we apply the above-mentioned changes, namely that of *a, u* into *e*, and the dropping of *m* (*n*), we get the following forms :—

	Sing.	Plural.
N.	smith	*smith-es.
G.	smith-es	smith-(e).
D.	smith-(e)	smith-(e).
A.	smith	smith-es.

The declension of *nefa* (belonging to the *n*-declension) was :—

	Sing.	Plural.
N.	nefa (nephew)	nef-an.
G.	nef-an	nef-ena
D.	nef-an	nef-um.
A.	nef-an	nef-an.

Again applying the same changes, we get in Middle English :—

Sing.	Plural.
N. nef-e	nef-e (n).
G. nef-e	nef-ene.
D. nef-e	nef-e (n).
A. nef-e	nef-e (n).

So that only the ending of the gen. plural remains. In order to make up for the want of marked endings, the remaining suffixes *-es* and *-ene* were extended to all the substantives, so that there was no longer any difference between masculine, feminine or neuter. In the second half of the fourteenth century, the ending *-ene* was supplanted by *-es*.

Late in the fourteenth century we find traces of the old plural ending *-ene*, *-en* (*-ena*), as *kingen-en* = *of kings*. (*Piers Plowman*.)

Probably before the thirteenth century *-es* began to take its place :—

“Alre *louerdæ* louerd, and alre *kingene* king.”—O.E. *Hom*, Second Series.

115. The suffix *-es* was a distinct syllable in earlier English, as—

“Ful wothe was he in his *lordes* werre.”—CHAUCER.

Traces of this form we have in Elizabethan writers :—

“Then looking upward to the heavn's beams,
With *nightes* stars thick powder'd everywhere.”
SACKVILLE'S *Induction*.

“Of *aspes* sting herself did stoutly kill.”—SPENSER, *F. Q.* i. 5, 50.

“To show his teeth as white as *whales* bone.”
SHAKESPEARE'S *Love's Labour's Lost*, v. 2.

116. The sign of the possessive is now *-s* for both numbers; and it is subject to the same euphonic modifications as the sign of the plural (see § 86).

The loss of the vowel of the original suffix *-es* is indicated by the apostrophe ('), as *boy's*, &c. In the case of words of

one or two syllables ending in a sibilant, the suffix is pronounced as if it were *-es*, but is written as *'s*, as *James's*, *judge's*, *justice's*.

When a word in the singular of more than two syllables ends in *s*, *x*, *ge*, *s* is omitted but (') retained, as—*Lycurgus'* sons, *Socrates'* wife.

In poetry this frequently happens with respect to words of more than one syllable, especially if the following word begins with a sibilant, as —

The *Cyclops'* hammer ; young *Paris'* face ; your *highness'* love ; for *justice* sake ; for *'praise* sake ; the *Phoenix'* throne ; a *partridge'* wing (Shakespeare) ; *princess'* favourite (Congreve) ; the Prior of *Jorvaulx'* question (W. Scott).

In Middle English, fifteenth century, if the noun ended in a sibilant or was followed by a word beginning with a sibilant, the possessive sign was dropt, as a *goose* egg, the *river* side. That is to say, in such cases composition was substituted for syntactical connexion.

To plurals ending in *s* no possessive suffix is added ; the plural possessive and nominative in these words are, in pronunciation, of identical form ; but the notion that a suffix has been elided has in modern times given rise to the practice of appending an apostrophe after the *s*, as *lords'*, *ladies'*.

117. In compounds the suffix is attached to the last element, as—the *son-in-law's* house ; the *heir-at-law's* will ; the *Queen of England's* reign ; *Henry the First's* reign.

Sometimes we find *s* added to the principal substantive instead of to the attributive or appositional word, as "It is *Othello's* pleasure, our noble and valiant general."—SHAKS. "For the *Queen's* sake, his sister."—BYRON. This was the ordinary construction as late as the sixteenth century. "Stephen concluded a marriage atween Eustace his sone and Constaunce the *kynges* sister of Fraunce" [= the king of France's sister].—FABYAN.

118. It is worth remarking that throughout the Middle English period, and even in the first half of the sixteenth century, not only such substantives as in O.E. had formed the genitive without *-es*, as *lady*, *father*, but also others, especially proper names, occur without any ending whatever.

Abram wif (Abraham's wife):—*The Story of Genesis and Exodus*, i. 780.

Uryn son:—*Sir Gawayne and the Greene Knight*, l. 113.

Cham...hadde his fader cors:—*Trevisa, Higden*, i. 121.

Charlot horse:—Lord Berners, *Huon de Burdeaux*, p. 24.

a spere lenþe (the length of a spear):—*Sir Gawayne and the Greene Knight*, l. 2316.

for god merci:—Caxton, *The Four Sonnes of Aymon*, 431; 450.

In the last instance, as in others, French influence may have been at work.

119. The use of *his* instead of the genitival ending occurs at first after proper names.

"þa we gesáwon Enac *his* cynryn" (we saw the children of Anac there).—*Numeri*, xiii. 29.

"Argal *his* brother."—*LAYAMON*, i. 279.

"Decius Cesar *his* tyme."—*TREVISA*, i. 39.

But in the second half of the thirteenth century there are already instances of common nouns followed by *his*, instead of the inflectional *-s*.

"Urne þe teares uppe þe king *his* leores" (the tears ran down the king's cheeks).—*LAYAMON*, Second Version, iii. 214.

"þe bissop *his* broþer."—*Ib.* ii. 276.

THE CASE ABSOLUTE

120. In the oldest English the *dative* was the absolute case, just as the ablative is in Latin. About the middle of the fourteenth century the *nominative* began to replace it. Milton has a few instances of this construction (in imitation of the Latin idiom), as “*me* overthrown,” “*us* dispossessed,” “*him* destroyed.”

“Schal nō flesch upon folde by fonden onlyue,
Out-taken yow aȝt (eight).”—*Allit. Poems*, p. 47, l. 357.

“Thei han stolen him *us* slepinge.”—WICKLIFFE, *Matt.* xxviii. 21.

“*Hym* ȝā gyt *sprecendum*, hig cōmon fram ȝam heah-gesamnungum (while he yet spake, they came from the synagogue).”—*Mark* v. 35.

“*Ʒinne dura belocenre*, bide ȝine fæder (when thou hast shut thy door, pray to thy father).”—*Matt.* vi. 6.

Cp. *Historical Outlines of English Syntax*, §§ 56, 57, 153.

CHAPTER XII

ADJECTIVES

121. IN modern English the adjective has lost the inflexions of *number*, *gender*, or *case* belonging to the older stages of the language.

122. In Chaucer's time, and even later, we find (*a*) an inflexional *e* to mark the plural number; (*b*) an inflexional *e* for the definite adjective—that is, when preceded by a demonstrative pronoun or a possessive pronoun, as—

“Whan Zephirus eek with his *sweete* breethe
Enspired hath in every holte and heethe
The tendre croppes, and the *yonge* sonne
Hath in the Ram his *half* cours ironne,
And *smale* fowles maken melodye.”

CHAUCER'S *Prol. to C. Tales.*

This *e* in the oblique cases of the definite form, in the oldest English, was *an*, of which, perhaps, we have a trace in the phrase “in the *olden* time.”

We often replace an inflexional *e* or *n* by the word *one*. Cp.

“And the children ham lovie togidere and bevy the vela;rede of the *greeten*.”—*Azenbite*, p. 739.

“The vissere hath more blisse vor to pime ane *gratne* visse thane ane *littlene*.”—*Ib.* p. 238.

“These *tweyne olde*” (= these two *old ones*).—*Pilgrimage*, p. 111.

"I sigh toward the tour an old oon¹ that come and neihede me."—*Ib.* p. 23.

"I sigh an old oon that was clumben anhy up on thy bed."—*Ib.* 205.

123. Chaucer has instances of the Norman-French plural *s* in such phrases as *cosins gerymains, in other places delitables*.

In Middle E. the adjective of Romanic origin frequently took a plural termination (*-es, -s*) when placed after its substantive,² as—

"*Wateres principales*."—*Early Eng. Poems*, p. 43.

"*Vertues cardinals*."—*Castle of Love*, p. 37.

"*Chanouns reguleres*," "*causes rasonables*," "*parties meridionales*."
MAUNDEVILLE.

124. It is also found without a following substantive, as—

"Of romances that been *reales*
Of popes and cardinales."—CHAUCER'S *Sir Thopas*.

"He ous tekth to knawe the greate things vram the little, the *preciouses* vram the *viles*, the *zuete* vram the *zoure*."—*Azenbite*, p. 76.

In this last example the unborrowed adjectives *greate, little, &c.*, express the plural by the final *e*.

Sometimes the plural *s* replaces the final *e* when the adjective is used substantively, as—

"They love their *yonges* very well."—LAWRENCE ANDREWE.

Ones sometimes replaces the plural sign, as "If it fortunèd one of the *yonges* to dye than thesē *olde ones* wyll hurye them."—*Ib.*

Cp. *wantons, empties, calms, shallows, worthies, orderlies, godlies*.

125. Shakespeare has preserved one remnant of the older case-endings of the plural adjective in the compound *alderliest* = the dearest of all, the most precious of all. (2 *K. Hen. VI.* i. 1.)

¹ The writer of the *Pilgrimage* only uses the *oon* when the adjective is accusative.

² Stow has *heyres males* = male heirs. A curious modern use of the plural suffix with an adjective is found in "The *Revs.* A.B. and C.D."

Alder (sometimes written *alther*) is another form of *aller* = *al-re* = *al-ra* (= *omnium*), the genitive plural of *all*.

In English writers of the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries, we find *bath-er*, of both, for which we sometimes find *bothes*, as "your *bothes* paynes."—*Pilgrimage*, p. 167.

I. COMPARISON OF ADJECTIVES.

126. Comparison is a variation or change of form to denote degrees of quantity or quality. It belongs to adverbs as well as adjectives.

"The suffixes of comparison were once less definite in meaning than at present, and were used to form many numerals, pronouns, adverbs, prepositions, in which compared correlative terms are implied."—MARCH.

127. There are three degrees of comparison: the positive, *high*; the comparative, *higher*; the superlative, *highest*.

The comparative is formed by adding *-er* to the positive; the superlative by adding *-est* to the positive.

This rule applies to (1) nearly all monosyllabic adjectives; (2) many dissyllabic adjectives, the chief exceptions being those ending in *-al*, *-ed*, *-est*, *-ful*, *-ic*, *-ish*, *-ive*, *-ose*, *-ous*, which in the modern language are usually compared in the manner described in § 128. For dissyllabic adjectives comparison with *-er*, *-est*, is merely optional, and it is only in the case of those in very frequent use that this method is much more common than the other.

Orthographical changes:—

- (1) A final consonant preceded by a short accented vowel is doubled, as *wet*, *wetter*, *wettest*; *red*, *redder*, *reddest*. The final *l* after an unaccented vowel is also doubled, as in *cruel*, *crueller*, *cruellest*.
- (2) A single final *y* is changed to *i*, as *happy*, *happier*, *happiest*; but *y* with a preceding vowel remains unchanged, as *gay*, *gayer*, *gayest*.
- (3) Adjectives ending in a silent *e* add *-r* and *-st*, instead of *-er* and *-est*, to the positive, as *polite*, *politer*, *politest*; *noble*, *nobler*, *noblest*.

128. When the adjective has more than two syllables, the comparison is expressed by *more* and *most*, as—*eloquent*, *more eloquent*, *most eloquent*. Adjectives of two syllables may be compared in the same manner, and many of them are never compared otherwise (see § 127).

This mode of comparison is probably due to Norman-French influence, and it makes its appearance at the end of the thirteenth century, as "*most gentyl*" (ROBERT OF GLOUCESTER), and becomes of frequent occurrence in Chaucer and Wicliffe, as *most mighty*, *most clear*.

In poetry we find even monosyllabic adjectives compared (for the sake of euphony) by *more* and *most*, as "Ingratitude *more strong* than traitors' arms" (SHAKESPEARE). "Upon a lowly asse *more white* than snow" (SPENSER).

The rules determining the choice between the two methods of comparison are not by any means strictly followed by writers of the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, and in poetry and rhetorical prose are still often set aside:—

"Ascham writes *inventivest*; Bacon, *honourablest* and *ancientest*; Fuller, *eminentest*, *eloquentest*, *learnedest*, *solemnest*, *famoussest*, *virtuoussest*, with the comparative and superlative adverbs, *wiseliest*, *easyliest*, *hardiliest*; Sidney even uses *refiningest*; Coleridge, *safeliest*."—MARSH.

129. **Double Comparisons** are not uncommon both in early and modern English, as *more hottere*, *most fairest* (Maundeville); *moost clenest* (Piers Plowman); *more kinder*, *more corrupter* (Shakespeare); *most straitest* (Acts of Apostles, xxvi. 5).

The comparison is sometimes strengthened by adverbs or phrases, as *still busier*, *far wiser*, *the lowest of the low*. So Chaucer has *fairest of faire* (*Knights Tale*).

Adjectives with a superlative sense are not usually compared. In poetry, we find, however, *perfectest*, *chiefest* (Shakespeare), *extremest* (Milton), *more perfect* (Eng. Bible), *loneliest* (Longfellow).

130. The *r* of the comparative stands for a more original *s*, as seen in the allied languages of the Aryan speech. In *hinder*, *inner*, however, the *r* is original; the suffix in these two words coincides only by accident with the *-er* of other comparatives.

The superlative was originally formed from the comparative by means of the suffix *-t*.

131. In numerals and pronominal words, &c. we find a relic of an old comparative, as in *other*, Lat. *al-ter*; Gr. ἄλ-τερο-ς; Sansk. *án-tará*; ¹ *whether*, Lat. *u-ter*; Gr. κό-τερο-ς; Sansk. *ka-tará*. By Sanskrit grammarians the origin of *-tara* (= Gr. -τερο-, Eng. *-ther*) is said to be found in the Sanskrit root *tar* (cp. Lat. *trans*, Eng. *through*), to cross over, go beyond.

132. An old superlative ending common to many of the Aryan languages is *-mo*, as—Eng. *for-ma*, *fru-ma* (primitive Teut. *formo-n-*); Lat. *pri-mu-s*; Sansk. *pra-tha-má*.

II. IRREGULAR COMPARISONS.

133. OLD, ELDER, ELDEST (O.E. *eald*, *ald*; *yltra*, *eldra*; *yldest*, *eldest*).

Elder and **eldest** are archaic, and can only be used with reference to living things.² As *than* cannot be used after *elder*, it is evident that its full comparative force is lost.

Older and **oldest** are the ordinary comparatives now in use.

The vowel change in *elder*, &c. is explained by the fact that there was originally an *i* before *r* and *st*, which affected the preceding *a* or *ea*, hence O.E. *eald* and *eldra*, *strang* and *strengra*, &c.

134. GOOD, BETTER, BEST (O.E. *gód*; *betera*, *betra*; *betest*, *betst*).

The comparative and superlative are from a root *bat*, good, found in O.E. *bét-an* (derived from *bót*, boot, amendment), to make good, amend.

¹ The English word is etymologically identical with the Sanskrit, but not with the Latin and Greek synonyms.

² This distinction is recent: cp. the following from *Earle's Micro-cosmographie* (1628): "His very atyre is that which is the *eldest* out of fashion." (Ed. ARBER, p. 29.)

Best = *bet-st*, illustrates the law that a dental is assimilated to a following sibilant.

In O.E. we find a comparative adverb, *bet* (the sign of inflexion being lost).

135.	BAD	}	WORSE, WORST	}	O.E. <i>yfel</i> ; <i>wyrsa</i> , <i>wyrs</i> ; <i>wyrrest</i> , <i>wyrst</i> .
	EVIL				
	ILL				

Bad probably derives from O.E. *bæddel*, hermaphrodita, *bædling*, an effeminate person.

Worse, O.E. *wyrsa*, from *wers-sa* from *wirsiza* (Goth. *wairsiza*), formed with comparative suffix *-iz* from a root *wers*, found in Ger. *ver-wirren*, to confuse.

The Dan. *værre* (O.N. *verri*) found its way into English writers of the North of England. Gower uses it in the following lines : —

“Of thilke *werre* (war)
In whiche none wot who hath the *werre* (worse).”

Spenser uses it with reference to the etymology of the word *world* :

“The world is much *war* than it was woont.”

Chaucer sometimes uses *badder* for *worse*.

Worst (O.E. *wyrst*, *wyrrest*) is from the same source.

136. MUCH, MORE, MOST (O.E. *micel*, *māra*, *mǣst*).

Much is from O.E. *micel* (Gothic *nikils*, akin with Greek *μέγας*, *μεγάλου*), which became later *or. mycel*, and in the South-west Middle English *muchel*.

More is from O.E. *mā-ra*, which answers to Gothic *ma-iza*, the ending *-iza* being the comparative suffix, as in *bat-iza*, O.E. *bet-(e)ru* (better). The adverb *mo(e)*, O.E. *mā*, is often used adjectively in Middle English and Elizabethan writers.

Many = O.E. *maneg*, Goth. *manags*, Ger. *manch* ; its ultimate etymology is obscure.

137. LITTLE, LESS, LEAST. O.E. *lytel*; *læssa* (*læs*); *læsest*, *læst*.

les-s = M.E. *las-se*, *les-se* = *læs-sa* = *læs-ra*.

least = *les-st* = *læs-est*.

Lesser is a double comparative, as "the *lesser* light" (*Eng. Bible*). Shakespeare has *littlest* (*Hamlet*, iii. 2).

The root *lais*,¹ found in *less* and *least*, has no etymological connexion with *little*. Another form of the superlative, *lærest*, occurs in O.E.

We also find in O.E. *min* = O.N. *minni*, Goth. *minniza* = less, Lat. *min-or*; Goth. *mins* = Lat. *minus*.

138. NEAR, NEARER, NEAREST. O.E. *néah*, *néh*; *nýra*, *néar*, *néarra*; *néahst*, *nést*. Later forms of the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries were—*negh*; *nerre* (*ner*); *next* (*neghest*).

By the Old English forms we see that *nigh*, *near*, *next*, are their proper representatives. Shakespeare uses *near*¹ as a comparative adverb.

Nea-r = *neah-r*; *next* = *negh-st* or *neah-st*. (The guttural of course was once pronounced.)

High was once similarly compared—*héah* (*heh*, *hegh*); *héhra*, *hérra* (*herre*); *héahst*, *héhst* (*heghst*, *hest*).²

Near, for *negh* or *nigh*, first came into use in the phrase '*far* and *near*,' in which *near* is an adverb, and represents the oldest English *neorran* = *near* (adv.), analogous to *feorrah* = *afar*;

¹ "The *nerre* to the Church the fether from God."—HEYWOOD'S *Proverbs*, C.

"The *rear* in blood the nearer bloody."—*Macbeth*, ii. 3.

² "When bale is *hekst* boote is *next*."—HEYWOOD'S *Proverbs*, E. iii. back.

Hawes (*Past of Pl.* p. 60) uses the old *ferre*:—

"My mynde to her was so ententyfe
That I folowed her into a temple *ferre*,
Replete with joy, as bright as any sterre."

In this we see the positive is replaced by an *adverb*, and not by the comparative adjective, as is usually supposed.

Nearer, nearest, are formed regularly from *near*.

139. **FAR, FARTHER, FARTHEST.** O.E. *feor, fyrra, fyrrest*,
Later forms, *fer, ferre (ferrer), ferrest*.

Farther is for *far-er*; the *th* seems to have crept in from false analogy with *further*. *Farthest* = *far-est*. *Further* = O.E. *furdor* = *ulterius*, the comparative of *furth* = *forth*.

140. **LATE, LATER, LATEST** (O.E. *late, lator, latost*); **LATE, LATTER, LAST** (O.E. *leta-mest* = *lust*).

Last = O.E. *latst*: cp. *best* = *beſt*.¹

Latter and *last* refer to order, as 'the *latter* alternative;' 'the *last* of the Romans.'

Later and *latest* refer to time. This distinction is not always strictly observed by our poetical writers.

141. **RATHER.** The positive and superlative are obsolete.

Rathe was the positive, as "the *rathe* primrose" (Milton): here *rathe* means early.

Rather means sooner, and is now used where *liefer* was once employed.

The O.E. forms were *hræð* (ready), *hæðra, hræðost*.

142. **Adjectives containing the superlative m.**

The Old English *for-m-a* signifies *first*, the superlative of a root *fore*. *Fyrm-est* = *for-m-ost* also had the same meaning, but is a double superlative.

First (O.E. *fyrrest, fyrst*) is the regular superlative of *fore*.

¹ In the 'Ormulum' we have *late, lattre, lattst* = late, latter, last.

Former is a comparative formed from the old superlative.

In Middle E. we have *forme* and *foremeste* for *first*.

"Adam our *forme* fader."—CHAUCER.

"Adam oure *foremeste* fader."—MAUNDEVILLE.

Forme fader was afterwards changed to—(1) *forme fader*; (2) *former-father*.

The suffix **-most** (O.E. *mest*), then, in such words as *utmost* is a double superlative ending; only people no longer understood the meaning of this suffix, and therefore *popular etymology* connected it with *most*. The analogies of the language clearly show that *most* was never suffixed to express the superlative.

after-m-ost = O.E. *æfte-m-est*, *æfter-m-est*

further-m-ost = furthest = O.E. *forð-m-est*.

In Middle and Early Modern E. we find *forther-m-ore* and *backer-m-ore*.

hindmost, hindermost = O.E. *hindu-ma*, *hinde-ma*.

Chaucer uses *hinderest*: cp. Middle E. *innerest*, *overest*, *upperest*, *utterest*.

hither-m-ost is not found in the oldest English.

in-m-ost, inner-m-ost = O.E. *inne-m-est*, *inne-ma*.

lower-m-ost (nether-m-ost) = O.E. *niðe-m-a*, *niðe-m-est*.

mid-m-ost = O.E. *mede-ma*, *mede-mest*.

out-m-ost, outer-m-ost } = O.E. *úte-ma*, *úte-mest*.

ut-m-ost, utter-m-ost }
up-m-ost, upper-m-ost } = O.E. *ýfe-mest*, *ýfe-mešte*.

over-m-ost

Over = upper, (cp. *a-b-ove*) in Middle E. writers:

"Pare thy brede and kerve in two,
The *over* crust tho *nether* fré."

Boke of Curtasye, p. 300.

"With tho *ove-m-ast* [uppermost] lofe hit [the saltcellar] shall be set."—*Ib.*, p. 322.

In O.E. we find superlatives of south, east, west, as—

súðemest, éastemest, and westemest.

Comp. endmost (O.E. *endemesþ*), topmost, headmost.

III. NUMERALS.

143. NUMBERS may be considered under their divisions—Cardinal, Ordinal, and indefinite Numerals.

I. Cardinal.

144. **One.** O.E. *án* ; Goth. *ains* ; Gr. *oivós* (in inscriptions) ; Lat. *unus* for older *oinos* ; Sansk. *ê-ka*, from *oi-kos*.

Out of the O.E. form *án* = *one* was developed the so-called indefinite article *an*, and (by loss of *n*) *a*.

In Middle E. we find *one* = *ána* = alone.

Two. O.E. *twá* fem. ; Goth. *twai* ; Gr. *δύο* ; Lat. *duo* ; Sansk. *dva* ; O.Sax. *tuê*.

Twain = two, O.E. *twégen* masc.:

We had another word for two in the Northern dialects, of Scandinavian origin, viz. *twin*, originally a distributive: cp. Goth. *twaihnaí*, O.N. *tvennr*.

Thrin for three also occurs in O.E. Northern writers, O.N. *þrennr*.

Three. O.E. *þrí*, *þréo* ; Goth. *þreis* ; Gr. *τρεις* ; Lat. *tres* ; Sansk. *tri*.

Four. O.E. *féower* ; Goth. *fidwôr* ; Gr. *τέτταρες, τέσσαρες* ; Lat. *quatuor* ; Sansk. *catvar*.

This numeral has lost a letter, *th*, and there is an O.E. compound *fíðer-féte*—M.E. *fether-foted*, *fither-foted* = quadruped—which *fether* is, of course, more original than *four*.

Five. O.E. *fif*; Goth. *fiuf*; Gr. πέντε; Lat. *quinque*; Sansk. *pañcan*.

In *five* we see that a nasal has disappeared.

Six. O.E. *six*; Goth. *saihs*; Gr. ἕξ; Lat. *sex*; Sansk. *ṣaś*.

Seven. O.E. *seofon*; Goth. *sibun*; Gr. ἑπτά; Lat. *septem*; Sansk. *saptan*.

Eight. O.E. *eahta*; Goth. *ahtau*; Gr. ὀκτώ; Lat. *octo*; Sansk. *aṣṭau*.

Nine. O.E. *nigon*; Goth. *niun*, O.Sax. *nigun*; Gr. ἐννέα; Lat. *novem*; Sansk. *navan*.

In the fourteenth century we find *neghen* for nine.

Ten. O.E. *týn*, *tén*; Goth. *tuíhun*; Gr. δέκα; Lat. *decem*; Sansk. *daśan*.

The Gothic shows that *týn* or *tén* = *ty'hen* or *tehen*.

Eleven. O.E. *endleofan*, *ellefan*; Goth. *ain-lif*; Gr. ἑνδεκα; Lat. *undecim*; Sansk. *eka-daśa*.

Twelve. O.E. *twelf*, Goth. *twa-lif*, is a compound of *twa* = two + *lif*, probably connected with the verb *to leave*, or rather with Latin *linquere*.

145. The numbers from thirteen to nineteen are formed by adding *-teen* (O.E. *-týne*) = ten, to the first nine numerals.

146. The numerals from twenty to ninety are formed by suffixing *-ty* (O.E. *tig*) = ten, to the first nine numerals.

147. **Hundred.** In the oldest English we find *hund* = hundred. In the Northumbrian dialect *hundrad*, *hundrath*

(cf. O.N. *hundraþ*) occurs. The syllable *-red* is probably connected with Gothic *raþjan* to number,¹

In the oldest English *hund* was added to the numerals 70 to 100, as *hynd-seofentig* = 70; Goth. *sibun-têhund*; Gr. ἑβδομή-κοντα; Lat. *septua-ginta*.

It is probable that the original form was not *hund-seofentig*, but *hund-seofonta*; O.Sax. (*h*)ant *sibunta* (decade seventh).

Hundred could also be expressed by *hund-tenti* (*hund-teontig*) cp. Goth. *taihun-têhund*.

148. Thousand = O.E. *þúsend*, Goth. *þusundi*, is now explained as *þus-hundi*, i.e. many hundreds, *þus* being connected with Skt. *tuvi* = many.

149. For expressing DISTRIBUTIVES (how many at a time) we employ—

(1) The preposition **by**, as *by ones*, *by twos*, *two by two*.

So in O.E. *be ánfealdum*, one by one; Middle Eng. *be hundredes*, *be thousandes*. (Maundeville.)

(2) **And**, as *two and two*.

(3) **Each** and **every**, *two each*, *every four*.

There are also other expressions, as *two apiece*, *two at a time*.

150. MULTIPLICATIVES are expressed—

(1) By placing the cardinal before the greater number, as *eight hundred*.

(2) By adjectives, with suffix **-fold**, as *twofold*, &c.

(3) By Romanic adjectives in **-ple** (ble), as *double*, *treble*, *triple*, &c.

(4). By the adverbs **twice**, **thrice**, as *twice seven*.

¹ In Middle E. of the fourteenth century we find *hunder* and *hundreth*. In O.N. *hundraþ* = hundred: cp. *áttreþr*, containing 80: *tíreþr*, containing 100.

(5) By the word **times** ; three *times* one are three.

In Middle English we used *sithe*, *sithes* = times ; as *two sithes too* = 2 : 2.

151. **Both.** O.E. *bēgen* (m.), *bā* (n.) ; Goth. *bai*, *bā* ; Ger. *bei-de*.

In the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries we find *bey*, *ba*, *bo*, *hoo* = both ; gen. *beire* (*bother*, *botheres*).

Sometimes *bā* is joined to *twā* (two), as *bātwa*, *butwa*, *butu*.

Bo-th is a compound of *bā-ðā*, both they ; cp. O.N. *báþir*.

As we find *bathe* first in the Northern dialects, it is perhaps due to Scandinavian influence.

The O.E. *bēgen* softened to *beyne* occurs in the literature of the fourteenth century :—

“ Well thou¹ maiht, zif thou wolt ; taken ensaumple of *beyne*,
Bothe two in heor elde children heo beore.”—*Vernon MS.*

2. Ordinals.

152. The ordinals, with the exception of *first* and *second*, are formed from the cardinal numbers, and were originally superlatives formed by the suffix *-to* (*th*).

First. For the etymology of this word see § 142.

Second (Lat. *secundus* = following) has replaced the O.E. *ðæder* (a comparative form).

In O.E. *ðæder* (= an-þer = one of two) might signify the first or the second of two. It is sometimes joined with the neuter of the article, as *ðæt ðæder*, which in the fourteenth century was represented by *the tother* (= thet other) ; the first was sometimes expressed by *the ton* (*the toon*), *the tone* = thet one.

Third = O.E. *ʒridða*, *ʒridde*, Northumbrian *ʒirda* (cp. *bird*, O.E. *brid*) ; *-de* (= *-dja*) is an adjective suffix = *tha* : cp. Lat. *ter-tiu-s*.

Fourth = O.E. *fōr-ða*.

Fifth = O.E. *fif-ta*.

Sixth = O.E. *six-ta*.

Seventh, Ninth, Tenth = O.E. *seofōða, nigoða, tēoða*.

In the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries these were—

sevethe, nethe, and tethe (in the Southern dialects).

sevende, neghende, tende (in the Northern dialects).

seventhē, ninthe, tenthe (in the Midland dialects).

The Midland forms are refashioned after the cardinals, and made their appearance in the fourteenth century; the Northern forms are of Scandinavian origin.¹

In the Northumbrian Gospels we find *seofunþa*.

Eighth stands for *eight-th*; O.E. *eaht-o-ða*.

In Middle E. (thirteenth and fourteenth centuries) we find *aghtende*.

Eleventh² = O.E. *endlesta, ællesta* (*elleuende, endlefthe* in the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries).

Twelfth = O.E. *twelfta* (*twelfthe, twelft*, in the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries).

Thirteenth = O.E. *þrēotēoða* (*threttethe and threttende, thirtende*, thirteenth and fourteenth centuries).

So up to nineteenth, the oldest English forms end in *-ope* (without *n*) as: fourteenth, *fēowertēoða*; fifteenth, *fiftēoða*; sixteenth, *sixtēoða*; seventeenth, *seofontēoða*; eighteenth, *eahtatēoða*; nineteenth, *nigontēoða*.

The corresponding forms in use in the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries were: fourteenth, *fourtethe, fourtende*,

¹ Cp. O.N. 7 *siaundi*, 9 *niundi*, 10 *tiundi*, 13 *þrettandi*, 15 *fimmtandi*, &c.

² For origin of *n* see remarks on Seventh.

fourtenthe ; fifteenth, *fyftee*, *fyfteen*, *fyfteenth* ; sixteenth, *sixtee*, *sextende*, *sixtenthe*, &c.

Twentieth = O.E. *twentig-oða* (*twentithe*).

IV. INDEFINITE ARTICLE.

153. The indefinite article, as we have seen, is a new development after the Conquest of the numeral *one*, (*án*).

Before a word beginning with a consonant the *n* is dropped.

One + the negative *ne* gives us **none**, O.E. *nán*.

None is only used predicatively or absolutely;¹ when used with a following substantive the *n* is dropped, whence *no*.

V. INDEFINITE NUMERALS.

154. **All** = O.E. *eall*, *eal* (see note on the old genitive plural, *aller*, *alder*, § 125).

155. **Many** = O.E. *manig*, *maneg*.²

In the thirteenth century we find for the first time the indefinite article used after it, as: *on moni are wísen* (Lazamon), *mony enne thing* = *many a wise*, *many a thing*. Hawes has *many a fold*.

¹ By absolutely is meant without a following substantive.

² *Many* is also a noun, as in "a great *many*."

"A *many* of our bodies."—*Hen. V.* v. 3.

"O thou fond *many*."—2 *Hen. IV.* i. 3.

"The rank-scented *many*."

"In *many's* looks."—*Sonnets*, 93.

"A *manye* of us were called together."—LATIMER's *Sermons*.

"Than a great *many* of old sparowes geder to-geder."—L. ANDREWE.

"And him fyligdon mycele *manigeo* = and there followed him (a) great *many* (or multitude)."—*Matt.* iv. 25.

156. *Fela, feola, fela*, Ger. *viel* (many), were in common use as late as the fourteenth century.

157. **Few** = O.E. *fēawa, fēa*, connected with Latin *pau-cus*, Greek *παῦ-ρος*.

In Middle E. we find *fa, fo*, and *fone* as well as *fewe, few*.

CHAPTER XIII

PRONOUNS

158. ON the nature of the Pronoun see § 75.

159. The classes of Pronouns are: (1) Personal Pronouns, (2) Demonstrative Pronouns, (3) Interrogative Pronouns, (4) Relative Pronouns, (5) Indefinite Pronouns.

I. Personal Pronouns.

(1) SUBSTANTIVE PRONOUNS.

160. The personal pronouns have no distinction of gender. There are two persons: the person who speaks, called the *first* person; the person spoken to, the *second* person.

161. (a) *Inflexion of the Pronoun of the First Person.*

			Old English.
SING.	Nom.	I	<i>Ich, Uch, I</i> .
	Gen.	—	<i>mīn.</i>
	Dat.	me	<i>mē.</i>
	Acc.	me	<i>mec mē.</i>
PLURAL.	Nom.	we	<i>wē.</i>
	Gen.	—	<i>ūser ūre.</i>
	Dat.	us	<i>ūs.</i>
	Acc.	us	<i>ūsic ūs.</i>

162. In I the guttural has disappeared: it is radical and exists in the allied languages, as Sansk. *ah-am*; Gr. *ἐγώ*; Lat. *ego*; Goth. *ik*.

By noticing the oblique cases we see there are two stems, *ek* (*ic*) and *me*, of the first person.

163. In Middle E. we find the pronoun agglutinated to a verb, as *Ichabbe* = *Ich* + *habbe* (I have); *Ichille* = *Ich* + *wille* (I will), &c.

In the provincial dialects of the South of England it still exists: cp. "*chill*" in Shakespeare's *King Lear*.

164. **Me** (dative) is still in use (1) before impersonal verbs, *methinks* = it appears to me; *me seems*, *me lists*; (2) after interjections, as *woe is me*, *well is him*; (3) to express the indirect object, *to me*, or *for me*.¹

Me = for me. It is often a mere expletive in Elizabethan writers, and no doubt the original force of the pronoun was forgotten.

See the dialogue between Petruchio and his servant Grumio, in *The Taming of the Shrew*, i. 2:—

"*Pet.* Villain, I say, knock *me* here soundly.

"*Gru.* Knock you here, sir? Why, sir, what am I, sir, that I should knock you here, sir?

"*Pet.* Villain, I say, knock *me* at this gate, and rap *me* well, or I'll knock your knave's pate.

"*Gru.* My master is grown quarrelsome. I should knock you first, and then I know after who comes by the worst. . .

"*Hortensio.* How now, what's the matter?

"*Gru.* Look you, sir,—he bid me knock him, and rap him soundly, sir. Was it fit for a servant to use his master so?"

In Middle English we find the dative construed before the verb *to be* and an adjective, as: *me were leef* = it would be lief (preferable) *to me*. Traces of this idiom are to be found in Shakespeare, as: *Me had rather*. (*Rich. II.* iii. 3) = Middle English *me were lefer* = *I had liever*.

Shakespeare has also: *you were best* = it were best *for you*.

The dative *me* has lost a suffix *r* (sign of dative): cp. Goth. *mi-s*, Ger. *mi-r*.

¹ "He plucked *me* ope his doublet."—*Julius Caesar*, i. 2.

The O.E. acc. *me* consists of *me* and a suffix which answers to Greek γε in εμοιγε, εμεγε. In Middle English it was supplanted by the dat. *me*; cp. *him* for O.E. *hine*.

165. **We**: Goth. *weis*; Ger. *wir*; Sansk. *vayam*.

166. **Us** (dat.): Goth. *unsis*; Ger. *uns*. The letter *n* disappears as usual before *s* in Old English.

Us (acc.): Goth. *u-nsi-s*; Ger. *uns*.

167. The O.E. had a dual number for the first and second persons, which went out of use towards the close of the thirteenth century.

168. (b) *The Pronoun of the Second Person.*

Old English.

SINGULAR.	<i>Nom.</i>	thou	ðú.
	<i>Gen.</i>	—	ðín.
	<i>Dat.</i>	thee	ðé.
	<i>Acc.</i>	thee	ðec, ðé.
PLURAL.	<i>Nom.</i>	ye, you	gê. —
	<i>Gen.</i>	—	éower (Middle E. <i>zure</i>).
	<i>Dat.</i>	you	éow (Middle E. <i>zuw</i>).
	<i>Acc.</i>	you	éowic, éow (Middle E. <i>zuw</i>).

169. **Thou**: Goth. *þu*; Gr. *σύ, tú*; Lat. *tu*; Sansk *tva-m*.

170. The use of the plural for the singular was established as early as the beginning of the fourteenth century.

Thou, as in Shakespeare's time, was (1) the pronoun of affection towards friends, (2) good-humoured superiority to servants, and (3) contempt or anger to strangers. It has, however, already fallen somewhat into disuse; and, being regarded as archaic, was naturally adopted (4) in the higher poetic style and in the language of solemn prayer. — ABBOTT.

Thee (dat.): Goth. *þu-s*; Gr. σοί; Lat. *tibi*; Sansk. *tubhyam*. See remarks on *me* (dat.).

Thee (acc.): Goth. *þuk*; Ger. *dich*; Gr. τέ, σέ; Lat. *se*; Sansk. *tvām*. See remarks on *me* (acc.).

171. Ye: Goth. *ju-s*; Gr. ὑμεῖς; Lat. *vos*; Sansk. *yuśmāc*, *yūyam*.

The confusion between *ye* and *you* did not exist in Old English. *Ye* was always used as a nom., and *you* as a dat. or acc. In the English Bible the distinction is very carefully observed, but in the dramatists of the Elizabethan period there is a very loose use of the two forms. Not only is *you* used as nominative, but *ye* is used as an accusative.

"Vain pomp and glory of the world, I hate *ye*."—SHAKESPEARE.

"And I as one consent with *ye* in all."—SACKVILLE.

I am inclined to look upon the origin of *ye* for *you* in the rapid and careless pronunciation of the latter word, so that, after all, the *ye* in the above extracts should be written *y'* (= you); *ye* or *you* may be changed into *ee*: cp. *look ee* = *look ye*. For the historical development of this usage, see Kellner, *Hist. Outlines of English Syntax*, § 212, 213.

You (dat.): Goth. *izwi-s*; O. Sax. *iū*; Gr. ὑμῖν; Lat. *vo-bis*; Sansk. *yuśma-bhyam* and *vas*.

You (acc.): Goth. *izwis*; O. Sax. *iū*; Gr. ὑμᾶς; Lat. *vos*; Sansk. *yuśmān* (*vas*).

In English *you* has been developed out of the O.E. *éow*.

(c) Demonstrative Pronoun of the Third Person.

172. He, She, It. This pronoun is sometimes, but incorrectly, called a personal pronoun: it has distinction of gender, like other demonstrative pronouns in O.E., which the personal pronouns have not.¹

¹ The demonstrative character of this pronoun is seen in such expressions as, "What is *he* at the gate?" (Shakespeare); "*He* of the bottomless pit" (Milton, *Arctopagitica*); "*his* of Denemarch" (Robert of Gloucester); "*thai* of Lorne, *thai* of the Castel" (*Barbour*); "*they* in France" (Shakespeare); "*them* of Greece" (North's *Plutarch*),

			Old English.
MASCULINE.	<i>Nom.</i>	he	<i>he.</i>
	<i>Gen.</i>	—	<i>his.</i>
	<i>Dat.</i>	him	<i>him.</i>
	<i>Acc.</i>	him	<i>hine</i> (Middle E. <i>him</i>).
FEMININE.	<i>Nom.</i>	she	<i>héo, hi</i> (M.E. <i>ho, 3o, 3ho, sco, sche</i>).
	<i>Gen.</i>	—	<i>hire.</i>
	<i>Dat.</i>	her	<i>hire.</i>
	<i>Acc.</i>	her	<i>hi, héo.</i>
NEUTER.	<i>Nom.</i>	it	<i>hit.</i>
	<i>Gen.</i>	—	<i>his.</i>
	<i>Dat.</i>	it	<i>him.</i>
	<i>Acc.</i>	it	<i>hit.</i>

PLURAL.

<i>Nom.</i>	Théy	<i>hi, héo</i> (M.E. <i>hi, he, þa, þei, þai</i>).
<i>Gen.</i>	—	<i>hira, heora</i> (M.E. <i>here, her, þar, þeir, þair</i>).
<i>Dat.</i>	Them	<i>him, heom</i> (M.E. <i>hem, ham, þam, þeim</i>).
<i>Acc.</i>	Them	<i>hi, heo</i> (M.E. <i>hi, he</i> ; later as the dative).

173. The Old English pronoun of the third person was formed from only one stem, *hi*; but the Modern English contains the stems *hi*, *sa*, and *tha*.

He. For *he* we sometimes find in Middle and early Modern English *ha, a* (in M.E. not confined always to one number or gender; = *he, she, it, they*).

It occurs in Shakespeare, as "*a* must needs" (*2 Hen. VI. iv. 2*); *quoth a*; and is also common in other old writers, as—"has *a* eaten bull-beefe" (S. Rowlands); "see how *a* frownes" (Ib.),

Hi-m (dat.) contains a real dative suffix *-m*, which is also found in the dative of adjectives and demonstrative pronouns.¹

Hi-m (acc.). This was originally a dative form, which in the twelfth century (in *Lazarus* and *Orm.*) began to replace the accusative; cp. under *me*, *thee*.

Hi-ne.—The old accusative was sometimes shortened to *hin* and *in*, and still exists in the South of England under the form *en*, as—"Up I sprung, drow'd [threw] down my candle, and douted [put out] *en*; and hadn't a blunk [spark] o' fire to teen *en* again."² (*Devonshire Dialect*.)

174. **She**, in the twelfth century, in the Northern dialects, replaced the old form *héo*. The earliest instance of its use is found in the A.-Sax. Chronicle.² After all, it is only the substitution of one demonstrative for another, for **she** is the feminine of the definite article, which in O.E. was *séo* or *sia*; from the latter of these probably comes *she*.

In the dialects of Lancashire, the Peak of Derbyshire, and adjoining districts, the old feminine is still preserved under the form *hoo*.

Her (dat.) contains a true dative (fem.) suffix *-r* or *-re*.

Her (acc.) was originally dative, and, as in the case of *him*, has replaced an accusative; the old acc. was *hi*, *héo*.

175. **I-t** has lost an initial guttural.³ The *t* is an old

¹ *Him* was also the dative of *it*, and we often find it applied to inanimate things in the later periods of the language.

² 1140 (Stephen). "þær efter *scæ* ferde ofer sæ." In the thirteenth century, the ordinary form of *she* is *sce*, found in Northern writers: *sche* (*scæ*) is a Midland modification of it.

³ We find this *h* disappearing as early as the twelfth century (as in *Orm.*).

neuter suffix (cp. *tha-t*, *'wha-t*) cognate with *d* in Latin—*illud*, *istu-d*, *qua-d*, *qui-d*. It is often a kind of indeterminate pronoun in Middle E.; *it* was a man = there was a man; *it arn* = *there are*. See also Kellner, *Hist. Outlines of English Syntax*, § 281.

It (dat.) has replaced the true form *him*.

For the history of the word *his* see *Adjective Pronouns*.

176. **They**.—In the thirteenth century this form came into use in the North of England, and replaced *hi* or *heo*; the earliest forms of it are *þeȝz*, *thei*, *tha*.

The Southern dialect kept up the old form *hi* or *heo* nearly to the end of the fourteenth century.

They is the nom. plural of the definite article, O.E. *ðá*, probably modified by Scandinavian influence.¹

“ Or gif *thai* men, that wil study
In the craft of Astrology,” &c.—BARBOUR'S *Bruce*.

Them (dat.), O.E. *ðám*, is the dative plural of the definite article, and replaced O.E. *heom*, *hem*. *Them* is the result of two cross influences: the *th* is taken from Old Norse *þeim*, the *e* from O.E. *hem*.

The-m (acc.) is a dative form; the true accusative is *thá* or *they*. It has replaced the O.E. *hi* or *heo*.

We often find in the dramatists *em* (acc.), usually printed *'em*, as if it were a contraction of *them*, which represents the old *heom*, *hem*, as—

¹ The O. Norse forms bear a greater resemblance to *thēy*, *their*, and *them* than the O.E. ones.

O. Norse *þei-r*, *þeirra*, *þeim*.
O.E. *ðá*, *ðára*, *ðám*.

The Midland and Southern dialects changed O.E. *ðá* to *tho*, not to *thei* or *they*.

"The sceptre and the golden wreath of royalty
 Seem hung within my reach.
 Then take *'em* to you
 And wear *'em* long and worthily."—Rowe.

177. TABLE showing the origin of **she, they, &c.**

<i>Definite Article.</i>				
	Masc.	Fem.	Neut.	
<i>Singular Nom.</i>	se	séo (sio)	ðæt	
	THE ¹	SHE	THAT	
	Nom.	Gen.	Dat.	Acc.
<i>Plural</i>	ða	ðára	ðám	ða
	THEY	THEIR	THEM	

We have said nothing about the genitives of the personal pronouns, because they are now expressed by the accusative with a preposition. For the origin of the pronominal genitives, see *Adjective Pronouns*.

(2) REFLEXIVE PRONOUNS.

178. Reflexives in English are supplied by the personal pronouns with or without the word **self**.

"I do repent *me*."—SHAKESPEARE'S *Merchant of Venice*.

"Signor Antonio commends *him* to you."—*Ib.*

"My heart hath one poor string to stay *'em* by."—*King John*.

"Come, lay *thee* down."—LODGE'S *Looking Glass*.

"Ladies, go sit *you* down amidst this bower."—*Ib.*

"All (fishes) have hid *them* in the weeds."—JOHN FLETCHER'S *Faithful Shepherdess*.

179. The addition of **self** renders the reflexive signification more emphatic, as—

¹ The *th* in the is due to the influence of the more numerous forms beginning with *th*.

(I) *myself*, '(thou) *thyself*, &c.

Singular. 1st person, *myself*; 2nd person, *thyself*,
' *yourself*.

Plural. 1st person, *ourselves*; 2nd person, *yourselves*.

Singular. 3rd person masc. *himself*; fem. *herself*;
' neut. *itself*.

Plural. 3rd person, *themselves*.

Note.—Self¹ was originally an adjective = same, as "in that *selve* moment" (CHAUCER).

"A goblet of the *self*" = "A piece of the same."—*Boke of Curtasye*, l. 776.

"That *self* mould" (SHAKESPEARE, *Rich. II.* i. 2). Cp. *self-same*.

In the oldest English *self* was declined as a definite or indefinite adjective; as *Ic self* and *Ic selfa* = I (my)self, and agreed with the pronouns to which it was added; as nom. *Ic selfa*; gen. *min selfes*, dat. *mē silfum*, acc. *mec silfne*.

180. In O.E. sometimes the *dative* of the personal pronoun was prefixed to the *nominative* of *self*, as—(1) *Ic mē silf*; (2) *ðú ðé silf*; (3) *hē him silf*: (1) *wē ús silfe*; (2) *ge ēow silfe*; (3) *hī him silfe*.

181. In the thirteenth century a new form came in, by the substitution of the *genitive* for the *dative* of the prefixed pronoun in the first and second persons, as—*mi self*, *thi self*, for *me self*, *the self*; later on (middle of the 14th century?) we find also *our self*, *your self*, for *us self*, *you self*.

No doubt *self* began to be regarded as a noun. Cp. *one's self*.

"Speak of thy fair *self*, Edith."—J. FLETCHER.

"My woeful *self*."—BEN JONSON.

¹ Self, Goth. *silba*, Ger. *selbe*, probably contains the reflexive *si* (Lat. *se*), and *-lf* = *lb*, life, soul (as in Ger. *Leib*, body). The Sansk. *ātman*, soul, is used as a reflexive.

"Thy crying *self*."—SHAKESPEARE.

"For at your flore *myself* doth dwell."—HEYWOOD, *The Four P.'s*.

"*Myself* hath been the whip."—CHAUCER.

Hence *self* makes its plural, *selves*, like nouns ending in *f*, *-fe*; cp. "To our gross *selves*," (Shakespeare)—a formation altogether of recent origin. "To prove their *selves*" occurs in Berners' Froissart.¹ Cf. Kellner, *Hist. Outlines of English Syntax*, § 290—298.

182. Such phrases as *Cæsar's self* (North), *Tarquin's self* (Shakespeare), are not, philologically speaking, so correct as *Attica self* (North), &c. Comp.

"And know kyndly what God es
And what *man self* es that es les."

HAMPOLE'S *Pricke of Consc.*, p. 4.

In *himself*, *themselves*, *it self* (not *its self*) the old dative remains unchanged; *his self*, *themselves*, are provincialisms. With *own*, *his* and *their* may be used.

183. In Middle English *que* was sometimes used for *self*.

"And the body with flesshe and bane,
Es harder than the saul by it *ane*."

HAMPOLE, *Pricke of Consc.*, p. 85.

"Whan they come by them *one* two"
= "When they two came by themselves."

Morte d'Arthur, p. 14.

¹ In Middle E. the plural was marked by *e* or *-en*: when this disappeared it left the plurals *ourself*, *yourself*, *themselves*; but as *we* and *you* were often used in the singular number, a new plural came into use, so we now say *yourself* (sing.), *yourselves* (pl.).

Cp. "We have saved *ourself* that trouble."—FIELDING.

"You, my Prince, *yourself* a soldier, will reward him."

—LORD BYRON.

(3) ADJECTIVE PRONOUNS.

184. The adjective pronouns, or, as they are sometimes called, the possessive pronouns, were originally formed from the genitive case of the personal pronouns, and were declined like adjectives.

In modern English the possessive adjective pronouns are identical in form with the old genitives of the personal pronouns, and are indeclinable.

Traces of the older adjectival forms are found in the fourteenth century.

185. **Mine, my, thine, thy**, O.E. *min*, *ðin*. The *e* in *mine* and *thine* only marks the length of the preceding vowel, and is no inflexional syllable.

-n is a true genitive suffix as far as English is concerned, but is of adjectival origin.

In the twelfth century the *n* dropped off before a consonant, but was retained (*a*) in the oblique cases, (*b*) in the plural (with final *e*), (*c*) when the pronoun followed the substantive, (*d*) before a word commencing with a vowel.

The fourth or euphonic use of *mine* and *thine* is exceedingly common in poetry, as—

“Give every man *thine* ear, but few *thy* voice.”—SHAKESPEARE.

Of the third usage we have instances as late as Shakespeare's time, as brother *mine*, uncle *mine*.

186. **His**, a true genitive of the root *hi*.

In M.E. we often find a plural *hise*.

He-r, O.E. *hi-re*, contains a genitive suffix, *-r* (*re*).

Its, O.E. *his*. This form is not much older than the end of the sixteenth century. It is not found in the Bible,

or in Spenser, rarely in Shakespeare¹ and Bacon, more frequently in Milton, common in Dryden, who seems to have been ignorant of the fact that *his* was once the genitive of *it*, as well as of *he*.

"And the earth brought forth grass and herb yielding seed after *his* kind."—*Gen.* i. 12.

"It shall bruise thy head, and thou shalt bruise *his* heel."—*Gen.* iii. 15.

"And that same eye, whose bend doth awe the world,
Did lose *his* lustre."—*Julius Caesar*, i. 2.

187. Along with the use of *his* we find, in the fourteenth century, in the West Midland dialect, an uninflected genitive *hit*.

"Forthy the derk dede see *hit* is demed ever more
For *hit* dedez of dethe duren there yet."²
Allit. Poems, B. I. 1021.

This curious form is found in our Elizabethan dramatists:—

"It knighthood shall fight all *it* friends."—*Silent Woman*, ii. 3.

"The innocent milk in *it* most innocent mouth."

"The hedge-sparrow fed the cuckoo so long,
That it's had *it* head bit off by *it* young."—*Lear*, i. 4.

"That which groweth of *it* own accord."³—*Levit.* xxv. 5.

188. For *its own* we have a curious form that occurs frequently in older writers, namely, '*the own*' as—"A certeine sede which groweth there of *the own* accorde."—*Fardell of Facion*, 1555.

It occurs in Hooker, but is altered in the modern reprints to *its own*. The earliest instance of this usage is

¹ Mr. Abbott notices that *it* is common in Florio's Montaigne.

² "Therefore the dark Dead Sea it is deemed evermore,
For *its* deeds of death endure (last) there yet."

³ The modern reprint of the edition of 1611 has altered *it* to *its*.

found in Hampole's "Pricke of Conscience," p. 85 (A.D. 1340):—

"For the saule, als the boke bers wytnes,
May be pynd with fire bodily,
Als it may be with *the dwen* body."

189. **Ou-r, you-r**, O.E. *ú-re* (*ús-er*), *éow-er* (M.E. *zure*).

All these forms contain a genitive pl. suffix (adjectival), -r (-re). See note on *Alder*, § 125.

Thei-r, has also a genitive pl. suffix, -r, and has replaced the older *hi-re* (*heo-re*, *he-re*, *he-r*). See Table, p. 183.

(4) INDEPENDENT OR ABSOLUTE POSSESSIVES.

190. **Mine, thine, his, hers, its, ours, yours, theirs**, are called independent or absolute because they may be used without a following substantive, as this is *mine*. that is *yours*.

"The tempest may break out which overwhelms thee
And *thine*, and *mine*."—BYRON.

191. **Hers, ours, yours, theirs**, are double genitives containing a pl. suffix *r* + a sing. -s. These forms were confined in the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries to the Northern dialects, and are probably due to Scandinavian influence. Sometimes we find imitations of them in the Midland dialects, as *hores*, *heres* = theirs. The more ordinary forms in the Southern dialects than in -s are *hire* (*hir*), *oure* (*our*), *youre* (*your*), *here* (*her*), as—"I wol be *your* in alle that ever I may."—CHAUCER.

In Middle English we sometimes find *ouren* = ours; *heren* = theirs, and in provincial English we find *hism*, *hern*, *ourn*, *theirn*.

II. Demonstrative Pronouns.

192. The demonstratives, with the exception of *the* and *yon*, are used substantively and adjectively.

(1) **The** (usually called the *Definite Article*) was formerly declined like an adjective for number, gender, and case, but is now without any inflexion.¹

SINGULAR.

Masc. <i>Nom.</i>	<i>se (the).</i>
<i>Gen.</i>	<i>ðe-s (the-s, thi-s, tha-s).</i>
<i>Dat.</i>	<i>ðém (tha-n, the-n).</i>
<i>Acc.</i>	<i>ðo-ne (the-ne, tha-ne, then).</i>
<i>Inst.</i>	<i>ðl, thé.</i>
Fem. <i>Nom.</i>	<i>séo (théo, tha, the).</i>
<i>Gen.</i>	<i>ðé-re (tha-re, the-re).</i>
<i>Dat.</i>	<i>ðé-re (tha-re, the-re).</i>
<i>Acc.</i>	<i>ðá (theo, the).</i>
Neut. <i>Nom.</i>	} <i>ðæt (that, thet).</i>
and	
<i>Acc.</i>	} like the Masc.
<i>Gen.</i>	
and	
<i>Dat.</i>	}

PLURAL.

<i>Nom.</i>	<i>þí (thaie, tho, tha).</i>
<i>Gen.</i>	<i>þí-ra, þé-ra (thare, there).</i>
<i>Dat.</i>	<i>þé-m, þé-m (than, thon, then)</i>
<i>Acc.</i>	<i>þí (thaie, tho, the).</i>

The inflexions began to drop off about the middle of the twelfth century.

The, before a comparative, is the old instrumental *thi*, as *the more* = *eo magis*, &c.

(2) **That**. In the Middle English Northern dialects *þat* was used irrespective of gender, as *þatt engell*; *þatt*

¹ Later forms which were in partial use during the twelfth, thirteenth, and fourteenth centuries are placed in brackets

allterr (*Orm.*), and in the fourteenth century we find it as a demonstrative, as now taking the place of the older *þilk* (*thilke*). See § 193. Then it took for itself the following plurals: (a) *þo* (or *þa*), the old plural of the definite article; (b) *þos* (*þas*), the old plurals of *this*.

In the Southern and some of the Midland dialects, we find *þes*, *þese*, *þise*, *þos* = these.

(3) **Those** = O.E. *ðas*, the old plural of *ðes* = *this*.

The history of the word *that* should be borne well in mind:—(1) It was originally neuter, (cp. *i-t*, *wha-t*); (2) It became an indeclinable demonstrative, answering in meaning to *ille*, *illa*, *illud*; (3) It took the pl. (1) of the; (2) of *this*.

(4) **This** (= *hic*, *hæc*, *hoc*) = O.E. *ðes* (m.), *ðeos* (f.), *þis* (m.), was formerly declined like an adjective. Here again the neuter has replaced the masculine and feminine forms, which, however, in the south of England were to be found as late as 1357.

In Wicliffe we have *thisis fader* = the father of *this* man.

The O.E. *ðes* is (as seen by the O. Sax. *these*) contracted, and it contains the root *the* (or *tha*, as in *the*) and a lengthened form of *se* (the), Sansk. *sya*. This *se* (*sya*) had the force of Lat. *-c*, *-que*, as in *hi-c*, *quis-que*.

These probably derives from the dat. pl. *ðeosum*, Middle English *þese* (n.).

This refers to the more immediate object, *that* to the remoter object.

“What conscience dictates to be done,
Or warns me not to do,
This teach me more than hell to shun,
That more than heaven pursue.”—POPE.

193. We have three demonstratives containing the adjective *-lic*, like, with the particles *so*, *the*, and *i* (Goth. *i-s*).

(1) **Such** : O.E. *swīlc*¹ = Gothic *swa-leiks* = so-like.

Such then signifies *so-like* (cp. Ger. *solch* = *so-lich*) ; *such like* is a pleonastic expression.

In the Northern dialects we find *slyk*, *sli*, *silk*, of Scandinavian origin, whence Scotch *sic*.

In Middle E. *suche ten*, &c. = ten times as much (or as many), &c.

"The lengthe is *suche ten* as the deepnesse."—*Pilgrimage*, p. 235.

(2) **Thilk** = the like, that, that same = O.E. *ṭy-līc*, *ṭy-lc* (Middle E. *thelk*, *thulk*, *thike*) ; Provincial English *thuck*, *thucky* (*theck*, *thick*, *thicky*, *thecky*).

"I am *thilke* that thou shouldest seeche."—*Pilgrimage*, p. 5.

"She hadde founded *thilke* hous."—*ib.* p. 7.

(3) **Ilk** = same : 'of that *ilk*.'

"*This ilk* worthe knight."—CHAUCER.

"*That ilk*² mah."—*ib.*

Ilk = O.E. *se ilca* = the same.

194. **Same** : Gothic *sama*, O.N. *samr*, Lat. *similis*, Gr. *ὁμος*, Sansk. *sama*. In the oldest English *same* is an adverb = together, and not a demonstrative.

As the word makes its appearance for the first time in the Northern dialects, it is no doubt due to Scandinavian influence.³

It is joined to the demonstratives *the*, *this*, *that*, *yon*, *yond*, *self*.

195. **Yon**, **yond**, **yonder**. Goth. *jains* (m.), *jaina* (f.), *jainata* (n.), that. In the oldest English *yond* (*geond*)

¹ In Middle E. of the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries there are various forms of this compound, as *swulc*, *sulch*, *swulch*, *swich*, *swuch*, *soch*.

² *That ilk*, O.E. *ṭat ylca*, was originally neuter. *Ilk* = same must be distinguished from Middle E. *ilk*, *ilka*, each, each one.

³ *Sam...sam* = whether or, is found in O.E.

is only a preposition = through, over, *beyond*, or an adverb = *yonder*. But there is a trace of *yon* as a demonstrative in the *Pastoral Care*, p. 443 :—*to 3eonre þyrg* (to yon town).

Yond makes its appearance as a demonstrative for the first time in the "Ormulum" (twelfth century).

It is seldom used substantively, as in the following passages from old English writers :—

"I am the kyng of this londe & Oryens am kalled,
And the *3ondur* is my quene, Betryce she hette."
Chevelere Assigne, l. 232.

"Ys *3one* thy page?"—R. OF BRUNNE, *Spec. of E. Eng.* p. 119.

"The *3ond* is that semly."—WILL. OF PALERNE.

196. **So.** O.E. = *swá*.

"Folly (I say) that both makes friends and keeps them *so*."—BP. KENNET'S *Translation of ERASMUS' Praise of Folly*.

"If there were such a way; there is none *so*."—GOWER, ii. 33.

In Early Middle E. *so* is used before comparatives like *the* (O.E. *ði*): "*swa leng the werse*" = *the longer the worse*; "*swa leng swa more*."—O.E. *Hom.* Second Series, pp. 85, 87.

III. Interrogative Pronouns.

197. The Interrogative Pronouns are **who**, **which**, **what**, **whether**, with the compounds **whoever**, **whatever**, **whethersoever**, **whichsoever**.

198. **Who.** O.E. *hwá*, Middle E. *hwo*, *ho* (masc. and fem.), *hwæt*, *hwat*, *wat* (neut.); Goth. *hwa-s* (m.), *hwa* (neut.); Slavsk. *kas* (m.), *kā* (f.), *ka-t* (neut.); Gr. *κό-s*, *πός*; Lat. *quis*, *quæ*, *quod*.

It is only used of persons, and is masculine and feminine.

Whose. O.E. *hwæs*, M.E. *was*, refashioned *whos* (*hos*, *wos*), gen. sing. Originally of all genders, now limited to persons, though in poetry it occasionally occurs with reference

to neuter substantives. It is also used absolutely, as "*Whose* is the crime?"

Whom (dat. sing.). O.E. *hwām*; Middle E. *wham* *wom*, originally of all genders.

The accusative *hwone* (*hwæne*), was replaced in the twelfth and thirteenth centuries by *wham*, but instances of the older *hwohe* are to be found under the forms *hwan*, *wan*, *wane*.

199. **What**, originally the neuter of *who*. In the 'Ormulum' *what* is used adjectively, without respect to gender, as "*whatt mann?*" "*whatt thing?*" just as we say, "*what man?*" "*what woman?*" "*what thing?*" Without a noun it is now a singular and neuter; with a noun it is singular or plural, and of all genders.

What in Old English was used in questions concerning the nature, quality, or state of a person, as *hwæt is ðes = quis est hic* (Matt. iv. 41).

"*What* is this womman, quod I, so worthily atired?"—*Piers Plowman*.

What is followed by *a*, like *many*, *such*, *each*, &c.

200. **What for** = *what sort of a*, is an idiom that made its appearance in the sixteenth century, and similar to the German *was für ein*. Spenser, Palgrave, and Ben Jonson have instances of it.

201. **Whether**.—O.E. *hwæðer*, Middle E. *whether*,¹ *wher*; Goth. *hwaþar* = which of the two. It has become archaic; but was very common in the seventeenth century.

"*Whether* is greater, the gift or the altar?"—*Matt.* xxiii. 19.

¹ See *Comparatives*, § 131, for origin of *-ther*.

It is very rarely used¹ adjectively, as in the following passage :—

“Thirdly (we have to consider) *whether stalc* (the Church or the Commonwealth) is the superior.”—Bv. MORTON in *Literature of the Church of England*, vol. i. p. 109.

In the thirteenth century it is rarely inflected; and the following passages are almost unique :—

(a) “*Hwepers fere wult tu beon? Mid hwepre wult tu ȝolien?*”¹ *Ancien Rîcole*, p. 284.

(b) “Now *whether his* hert was fulle of care.”²—*Morte d'Arthur*.

Whether his = *whetheres*. I have seen *who his* = *whose*, an analogous formation.

(c) Bishop Hall uses the rare compound **whethersoever**.

“What matters it whether I go for a flower or a weed, here? *Whethersoeuer* I must wither.”

202. **Which**, O.E. *hwilc*, Middle E. *hulic*, *whih*, *whulc*, *whulch*, *wuch*, *woch*,¹ a compound of *hwa*, who, and *lic* = *like*. Cp. Lat. *qua-li-s*. It is used as a singular or plural, and of any gender.

In O. and Middle E. it has the force sometimes of (a) *quis*, as *Hwylc is min' mōdor?* Who is my mother? (b) *quantus* :—

“*Whilke* a sinne violent.”—GOWER. iii. 244.

“*Allas wȝilke* serwe and deol ther wæs!”—*Castel of Love*, p. 5.

¹ “Of which of the two wilt thou be the associate? With which of the two wilt thou suffer?”

² “Now of which of the two was the heart full of care?” The writer is speaking of Launcelot and Queen Guenevër.

IV. Relative Pronouns.

203. The relative pronouns are **who**, **which**, **that**, **as**. In O.E. *who*, *which*, *what*, were not relative, but interrogative pronouns; *which*, *whose*, *whom*, occur as relatives as early as the end of the twelfth century, but *who* was not in common use before the sixteenth century. *That* and *what* originally referred only to *neuter* antecedents.

The relatives in the oldest English were:—

(1) *se* (m.), *séo* (f.), *ðæt* (n.): also the definite article. (2) *ðe*, in declinable. (3) *ðe* in combination with *se*, *séo*, *ðæt*; as *se ðe séo ðe, ðette*. (4) *swað-swað* = so...so. (5) *ðæt ðæt*, whatever. (6) *swylc...* *swylc* = such...such.

204. **Who** as a relative is not recognised by Ben Jonson, who says "one relative *which*." It is now used in both numbers, and relates to masculine or feminine antecedents (rational).

205. *Who* is very rarely employed by Haſtes; frequently by Berners; not uncommon in Shakespeare; used only once or twice by Sackville.

"And other sort * * * ; *
* * * ; *

Who, fearing to be yielded, fled before;
Stole home by silence of the secret night:
The third unhappy and enraged sort
Of desp'rate hearts, *who*, stain'd in princes' blood,
From traitorous furour could not be withdrawn."—SACKVILLE.

206. *Who* . . . *he* is used like Ger. *wer*, *quiskis* = whoso.¹

¹ This construction is common in Shakespeare, where we should use *whoever*.—

"O now *who* will behold
The royal captain of this ruin'd band?
Let *him* cry, 'Praise and glory on his head.'"

Henry V. iv. Prol.

The demonstrative may be omitted, as—

“Who steals my purse steals trash.”—*Othello*, iii. 3. 157.

207. In the fourteenth century *whan*, *wan* (representing O.E. *hwone* and *hwam*) is sometimes found as an objective case:—

“Seint Dunstan com hom agen . . .
Ladde his abbey al in pees fram *whan* he was so longe.”

E. Eng. Poems, p. 37.

“*pis(e)* were ure faderes of *wan* we bep suþe ylome.”—ROBERT OF GLOUCESTER.

208. In Gower we find the demonstrative *the* joined to *whose* and *whom*, so that *the whose* = whose; *the whom* = whom:—

“*The whas* power as now is falle.”—*Confessio Amant.* ii. 187.

“*The whom* no pité might areste.”—*Ib.* iii. 203.

“Your mistress from *the whom* I see.

There’s no disjunction.”—*Winter’s Tale*, iv. 4.

Whose that = *whoso*:—

“To Venus *whos* prest *that* I am.”—*Confess. Amant.* ii. 61.

“And dame Musyke commaunded curteysly

La Bell Pucell wyth me than to daunce

Whome that I toke wyth all my plesaunce.”

HAWES, *Pastime of Pleasure*, p. 70.

“*Whan* he did foreknow, he did predestinate.”—*Rom.* viii. 29.

“*Who* seemt most sure, *him* soonest whirls she (Fortune) down.”

‘SACKVILLE’S *Henry Stafford*.

“And *who* wylle not, *thay* shalle be slone.”—TOWNLEY, *Mysteries*, p. 71.

“A *hwam* mai he luue troweliche *hwa* ne luues his brother, Thenne *hwase* the ne luues *he* is mon unwreastest.” (Ah! whom may he love truly *whoso* loveth not his brother; then *whoso* loveth not thee is a most wicked man.)—O.E. *Hom.* First Series, p. 274.

209. Shakespeare uses *who* of 'animals and of inanimate objects regarded as persons, as—

"A lion *who* glared."—*Julius Cæsar*, i.

"The winds
Who take the ruffian billows by the tops."—2 *Hen. IV.* iii. 1.

"And as the *turtle* that has lost her mate
Whom griping sorrow doth so sore attain."*
SACKVILLE'S *Henry Stafford*.

210. **Which** now relates only to neuter antecedents, but this is comparatively a modern restriction. Cp. "Our Father *which* art in heaven."

"Then Warwick disannuls great John of Gaunt,
Which did subdue the greatest part of Spain."—3 *Hen. VI.* iii. 1.

"Adrian *which* pope was."—GOWER, i. 29.

"She *which* shall be thyatrice."—*Ib.* i. 195.

211. Compounds of *which* with *the*, *that*, *as*, &c. are now archaic :—

"'Twas a foolish guest,
The which to gain and keep he sacrificed all rest."—BYRON.

"The better part of valour is discretion, in *the which* better part I have saved my life."—1 *Hen. IV.* v. 4.

"The chain
Which God he knows I saw not, for *the which*
He did arrest me."—*Comedy of Errors*, v. 1.

"The civil power, which is the very fountain and head from *the which* both these estates (Church and Commonwealth) do flow, and by *the which* it is brought to pass that there is a Church in any place."—BR. MORTON.

"His fruits, for most, was wild fruits of the tree,
Unless sometimes some crumbs fell to his share,
Which in his wallet long, God wot, kept he,
As on *the which* full daintly would he fare."
SACKVILLE'S *Induction*.

"*The which* was sleped Clemene."—GOWER, ii. 34.

"Among *the which* there was one."—*Ib.* ii. 375.

"The Latin worde *whyche* *that* is referred
Unto a thyng *whyche* is substancyll,
For a nowne substantive is wel averred."

HAWES, *P. of P.* p. 24; see p. 14.

"Theis . . . yatis (gates) *which* *that* ye beholde."

SKELTON, i. 384.

"Man, the *which* *that* wit and reason can."—GOWER, i. 34.

"Thing *which* *that* is to love due."—*Ib.* ii. 18.

"Thing *which* *as* may nought been acheved."—*Ib.* ii. 380.

"This abbot *which* *that* was an holy man."

CHAUCER'S *Prioress' Tale*, l. 630.

"The sond and ek the smale stones
Whiche *as* sche ekes out for the nones."

GOWER, *Specimens of E. Eng.* p. 373.

212. **That**, originally only the *neuter* singular relative, now agrees with singular and plural antecedents of all genders.¹

That came in as early as the time of Alfred the Great to supply the place of the *indeclinable relative the*, and in the fourteenth century it is the ordinary relative.² In the sixteenth century, *which* often supplies its place; in the seventeenth century, *who* replaces it. About Addison's time, *that* had again come into fashion, and had almost driven *which* and *who* out of use.

¹ *That* introduces always an adjective clause, while *who* and *which* are not always so used, as—

(1) I met a man *who* told me he had been called = I met a man
and he told me, &c.

(2) It's no use asking John, *who* knows nothing of it = It's no use
asking John, (*since, seeing, that, for, &c.*) he knows nothing
of it.

In (1) the second clause is co-ordinate in *sense* with the preceding; in (2) it is adverbial.

"*That* is the proper restrictive explicative, limiting or defining relative."—BAIN'S *English Grammar*, p. 23.

² See *Historical Outlines of English Syntax*, § 331.

Addison, in his 'Humble Petition of *Who* and *Which*,' makes the petitioners thus complain: "We are descended of ancient families, and kept up our dignity and honour many years, till the Jack Sprat *that* supplanted us."

213. There is another point in which *that* resembles the indeclinable *the*; both being followed and not preceded by a preposition, as—"ðæt bed, se lama *on* læg" (*Mark* ii. 4) = "The bed *wherein* the sick of the palsy lay" (*English Version*), or = the bed *that* the lame man lay *on*.

So in Middle E. fourteenth century:—

"þe ston þat he leonede to."—*Vernun MS.* fol. 4a.

And, as in our Version, the *relative adverb* is sometimes found:

"He eode in to þe cite þer all his fon inne were."—*Ib.*

As was used sometimes to replace *that*, as—

"For þer is a welle fair ynouȝ
In þe stede *as* he lai *on*; as me maȝ þer iseo."

E. Eng. Poems, p. 35.

"On Englysshe tunge out of Frankys
Of a boke *as* I fonde *ynne*."

R. OF BRUNNE'S *Handlyng Synne*, p. 3.

214. **That**, in virtue of its being neuter, is sometimes used for *what*, and a preposition may precede it.

"I am possess'd of *that* is mine."—SHAKESPEARE, *Much Ado*, i. 1.

"Throw us *that* you have about you."

Ib. *Two Gentlemen of Verona*.

"We speak *that* we do know, and testify *that* we have seen."

St. John iii. 11.

"What wight is that which saw *that* I did see."

Ferrex and Porrex, p. 69.

"Eschewe *that* wicked is."—GOWER'S *Confess. Amant.* i. 244.

"*That* he hath hyght, he shall *it* hold."—*Morte d'Arthur*, p. 132.

215. The O.E. *ðæt ðæt* = whatever, as "*ðæt ðæt* later bið, *ðæt hæfð* angin," = that that later is, that hath beginning.

We still find it for *that which*—

"*That that* I did, I was set on to do't by Sir Toby." Twelfth Night, iv. 2.

"*That that* is, is."—*Ib.* v. 1.

"*That that* that gentleman has advanced, is not *that*, that he should have proved to your Lordship."—*Spectator*, 80.

216. **What** = that which, refers to singular and neuter antecedents. It is used both substantively and adjectively.

"*What* is done cannot be undone."—*Macbeth*.

"Look *what* I speak, my life shall prove *it* true."—*Ib.* iv. 3.

"No ill luck stirring but *what* lights upon my shoulder." *Merchant of Venice*, iii. 1.

"The entertainer provides *what* fare he pleases."—FIELDING.

217. Such expressions as the following are archaic, as—

"He it was, whose guile
Stirred up with envy and revenge deceived
The mother of mankind, *what* time his pride
Had cast him out from heaven."—MILTON.

"At *what* time Joas reigned as yet in Juda."—HOLINSHED.

"For *what* tyme he to me spak,
Out of hys mouþ, me boghte brak
A flamme of fyre!"—R. OF BRUNNE, *Specimens*, p. 119.

218. It is a vulgarism to use *what* with an antecedent noun or pronoun, as—

"A vagrant is a man *what* wanders."

Yet we find some instances of this in older writers, as—

"I fear nothing *what* can be said against me."—*Hen.* VIII. v. 1.

"To have his pomp and all *what* state commands." *Timon of Athens*, iv. 2.

"Either the matter *what* other men wrote, or els the maner how other men wrote."—ASCHAM's *Scholemaster*, p. 142.

"Offer them peace or *ought what* is beside." *Ed. I. in Old Plays*, vol. ii. p. 37.

219. **What that, that what**, are archaic, as—

"What man þat it smite
Thurghout his armur it wol kerve and byte."

CHAUCER, *Squyer's Tale*, l. 10471.

"That what we have we prize not to the worth."—*Much Ado*, ii. 1.

"That what is extremely proper in one company, may be highly improper in another."—CHESTERFIELD.

"That þat a king himselfe bit (= bids)."

GOWER, *Confess Amant*, i. 4.

"But what þat God forwot mot needes be."—CHAUCER.

"What schulde I telle . . .

And of moche oþer þing what þat þen was?"

R. OF BRUNNE'S *Handlyng Synne*, Prol.

220. **So what as** = what that :—

"Here I do bequeathe to thee
In full possession, half that Kendal hath,
And what as Bradford holds of me in chief."

DODSLEY, *Old Plays*, ii. 47.

221. **As** (O.E. *eall-swá*, *alswá*, M.E. *also*, *alse*, *ase*, *als*; cp. O.E. *hwá-swá*, M.E. *hose* = whoso) possesses a relative force on account of its being a compound of *so*,¹ and is usually employed as such when preceded by the demonstratives *such*, *same*, *so much*.

"All such reading as was never read."—POPE.

"Unto bad causes swear
Such creatures as men doubt."—*Julius Caesar*, ii. 1.

"For all such authors as be fullest of good matter . . . be likewise always most proper in words."—ASCHAM'S *Scholemaster*, p. 136.

"Some such sores as greve me to touch them myself."

Ed. I. in Old Plays, vol. ii. p. 20.

"Such one as is already furnished with plentie of learning."

Ib. p. 113.

¹ We find *so* . . . *so* = for *as* . . . *so* :—

"So the sea is moved, so the people are changed."—DR. DONNE'S *Sermons*.

"These are *such as* with curst curres harke at every man but thei owne friends."—GOSSON, *School of Abuse*, p. 18.

"For þo sche þoghte to beginge
Such þing as semeth impossible."

GOWER, *Specimens of E. Eng.* p. 373.

"Of *sich as* loves servauntes ben."—*Romaunt of the Rose*, l. 145.

"In *þilke* places as þey habiten."—*Ib.* 660.

After *so, as* occurs sometimes—

"So many examples *as* filled xv. bookes."—ASCHAM, p. 157.

In Shakespeare it is found after *this, that* :

"That gentleness *as* I was wont to have."—*Julius Caesar*, i. 2.

"Under *these* hard conditiops *as* this time is like to lay upon me."—*Ib.*

But in Middle E. writers we sometimes find *as* = *such as* :—

"Draustes *as* me draweþ in poudre" = characters *such as* one draws in powder (dust).—*E. Eng. Poems*, p. 77.

"Talys shall þou fynde þerynne,
Mervelys some *as* Y fonde wrytyn."—R. OF BRUNNE, p. 5.

222. For **such . . . as** the oldest English has *swylc* . . . *swylc* = *such . . . such* :—

"He séce *swylcne* hláford *swylcne* he wille."—*Laws of Æthelred*, V. i. 1 : = let him seek *such a lord as* he may choose.

At the end of the twelfth century we find *as* for *swylc* :—

"Wiþþ all *swillc* rime *alls* her iss sett."—*Orm.* D. 101.

Cp. the following, where *alse* = *as if* = the older *swilc* :—

"He wes so kene, he wes swa strang
Swilc hit weore an eotand."—*La3.* A. p. 58.

"He wes swa kene, and so strong,
Alse he were an eatande [= giant]."—*La3.* B. p. 58.

(A = earlier text, early thirteenth century. B = later thirteenth.)

Sometimes *so* is found after *swylc*:—

“And *swilche* opre [sennen] *so* the apostle her nemde.”—*O.E. Homilies*, Second Series.

“*Swylcra* yrmða *swa* ðú unc æt scrife” = *Of such miseries as thou previously assignedst to us* (two).—*Exeter Book*, 373.

223. **Who-so, what-so, who-so-ever, which-so-ever** are relatives (indefinite), like the Latin *quisquis*, *quincunque*.

The latter parts of the compounds, used adjectively, are sometimes separated by an intervening noun, as—

“We can create, and in *what* place *so’er*
Thrive under evil.”—MILTON, i. 260.

“Upon *what* side as *ever* it falle.”—GOWER, *Confess. Amant.* i. 264.

224. *What* is used sometimes for *whatever*:—

“And, speak men *what* they can to him, he’ll answer
With some rhyme rotten sentence.”

HENRY PORTER in LAMB’S *Dram. Poets*, p. 432, Bohn’s Series.

“*What* þou here ye no credence.”—GOWER’S *Confess. Amant.* i. 50.

In Middle E. we find *who that ever*, *what that ever*, *who-as-ever*, *what-as-ever*, *what-als-ever*.

“Yn *what* cuntre of the worlde so *ever* þat he be gone.”
Gest. Rom. i.

“*Who* þat *ever* comþ þedir he shalle fare well.”—*Ib.*

225. *Who-ever, whatever, which-ever* are relative and interrogative. They do not occur in the oldest English, and are comparatively late forms.

V. Indefinite Pronouns.

226. The indefinite pronouns do not specify any particular object. Some are used substantively, others adjectively. Most of them may be used in both ways. The indefinites

are (in addition to the indefinite relatives) *who*, *what*, *some*, *none*, *no*, *ought*, *naught*, *enough*, *any*, *each*, *every*, *either*, *neither*, *other*, *else*, *sundry*, *certain*.

227. **Who** = any one, some one.

"Timon, surnamed Misanthropos (as *who* should say Loup-garou, or the man-hater)." — NORTH'S *Plutarch*, 171.

"Suppose *who* enters now,
A king whose eyes are set in silver, one
That blusheth gold." — DECKER'S *Satiro-Mastix*.

"'Twill be my chaunce els some to kill wherever it be or *whom*." — DAVIS, *Scourge of Folly*, DODSLEY'S *Old Plays*, ii. p. 50.

"'Is mother Chat at home?' 'She is, syr, and she is not; but it please her to *whom*.'" — *Ib.* p. 61.

"The cloudy messenger turns me his back
And hums, as *who* should say, 'You'll rue the time
That clogs me with this answer.'" — *Macbeth*, iii. 6.

"As *who* would saye Astrologie were a thing of great primacie." — DRANT'S *Sermons*.

"Sche was as *who* seip, a goddesse."
GOWER, *Specimens of E. Eng.* p. 376.

"þay faught[en] alle þat longē day,
Who had it sene, wele myght he syghe."
Morte d' Arthur, p. 126.

"I will not live
Who wolde me all þis world here give."
Chaucer's Dream, l. 618.

"If þer were not *who* to sle it," &c. — *Pilgrimage*, p. 12.

"*Akwa* (= als wha) say here, may lyf na man
Wipoute drede, þat witte can." — HAMPOLE, *P. of C.* p. 69.

"As *hwa* se seic he þis is mare þerf þeof." — *O.E. Hom. First Series*, p. 281.

"þenne aȝaines kinde gaþ *hwn* þat swuče kinsemon ne luueþ." — *Ib.* p. 275.

Who is sometimes joined to *some*. See § 232.

228. What is indefinite in such expressions as "I tell you *what*" (= something), "I know not *what*," "*what* not," "*elles what*" (Chaucer).

"Come down and learne the little *what*
That Thomalin can sayne."—SPENSER'S *Shep. Cal.*, July.

"As þey spek of many *what*."
ROBERT OF BRUNNE, *Handlyng Synne*, Specimens, p. 110.

"Which was the loþliest[e] *what*."—GOWER, i. 98.

"As he which cowþe mochel *what*."—*Ib.* i. 320.

"Love is bought for litil *what*."—*Ib.* ii. 275.

"A little *what*."—WICKLIFFE, *Jn* vi. 7.

In the oldest English we find *ðnes hwæt* and *swilces hwæt* = somewhat.

For other compounds, see *some*, § 232.

229. Some (O.E. *sum*, Middle E. *som*, *aliquis*, *quelque*) is used both adjectively and substantively.

(1) It has the force of the indefinites *a*, *any*, *a certain*, as—

"And if *some* Smithfield ruffian take up *some* strange going; *some* new mowing with their mouth; wrinching with the shoulder; *some* brave proverb, *some* fresh new othe, . . . *some* new disguised garment . . . what-soever it cost, gotten must it be."—ASCHAM, *Schoolmaster*, p. 44.

"And yet he could roundlie rap out so many ugle othes as *some* good man of fourscore year old hith never heard named before."—*Ib.* p. 48.

"Some holy angel
Fly to the court of England."—*Macbeth*, iii. 6.

"The fireplace was an old one, built by *some* Dutch merchant long ago."—DICKENS.

"*Sum* holi childe."—*Life of Becket*, p. 104.

"þer was *sum* prest."—WICKLIFFE, *Luke* i. 5.

"*Sum* þong man suede him."—*Ib.* *Mark* xiv. 51.

"þe 33 wisstenn þatt him wæs *sum* unncup sihhþe shæwedd."—*Orm.* 228.

"*Sum* dēma wæs on sumere ceastre."—*Luke* xviii. 2.

We find it sometimes with the genitive plural in O.E., as—

“Dā com his féonda *sum*.”—*Mart.* xiii. 25.

(2) It expresses an indefinite part or quantity, as—

“It is *some* mercy when men kill with speed.”—WEBSTER’S *Duchess of Malfy*.

“The annoyance of the dust, or else *some* meat
You ate at dinner, cannot brook with you.”

MIDDLETON’S *Arden of Feversham*.

“And þerefore wol I make you disport
As I seyde erst, and do you *som* comfort.”

CHAUCER, *Prolog.* l. 770.

(3) *With plural substantives*, as “*some* years ago.”

“*Some* certain of the noblest-minded Romans.”—*Julius Caesar*, i. 3.

“And *some* I see . . .

That twofold balls and treble sceptres bear.”—*Macbeth*, iv. 1.

“There be *som* serving men that do but ill service to their young masters.”—ASCHAM, *Scholemaster*, p. 48.

“I write not to hurte any, but to profit *som*.”—*Ib.*

(4) *With numerals*, in the sense of *about* :—

“Surrounded by *some* fifty or sixty fathoms of iron cable.”

DICKENS.

“What a prodigy was’t

That from *some* two yards high, a slender man
Should break his neck.”

J. WEBSTER, *The White Devil*.

“*Some* half hour to seven.”

BEN JONSON, *Every Man in his Humour*.

“A prosperous youth he was, aged *some* four and ten.”

GREENE, p. 66.

“*Some* dozen Romans of us.”—*Cymb.* i. 7.

“*Some* day or two.”—*Rich. III.* iii. 1.

“Dā wæren hi *sume* tén géar on þám gewinn.”—BOETH. xviii. 1.

(5) *With the genitive pl.*, O.E. "*éode eahta sum*" = he went one of eight. We find in modern Scotch a remnant of this idiom in the phrase "*a twasum* dance," a dance in which two persons are engaged, and in the phrase *foursome* to denote a game of golf in which four players take part.

"Bot it (boat) sa litell wes, þat it
Myhtc our the watter bot *thresum* flyt" (carry).

BARBOUR'S *Brus*, p. 63.

(6) *In apposition instead of the partitive genitive*, as—

"3ef þou havest bred ant ale
* * * *

þou del hit *sum* about."—BARBOUR'S *Brus*, p. 98.

"*Summe* heo fleizen to Irelande."—*Lazamon*, iii. 167.

"*Sumc* dá bóceras."—*Matt.* ix. 3.

"Ac *sume* ge ne gelyfað."—*John* vi. 64.

Instead of this construction the partitive genitive was used as early as the twelfth century.

"*Sum of* þe vede feol an uppe þe stane and *sum* among þeornen."—*O. Eng. Hom.*, First Series, p. 133.

"*Summe* off ure little flocc."—*Orm.* l. 6574.

"Lo here a tale of *3ow sum.*"

R. OF BRUNNE, *Handlyng Synne*, p. 309.

"*Summe* of hem camen *3eo* fer."—WICKLIFFE'S *Int.* viii. 3.

"þe kyng and *some* of hys defendede hem *faste*."—ROBERT OF GLOUCESTER, l. 1290.

230. **Some . . . some** = *alius . . . alius*; *alter . . . alter*.

"*Some* thought Dunkirk, *some* that Ypres was his object."

MACAULAY.

"The work *some* praise,

And *some* the architect."—MILTON, *P. L.* i. 731.

"For books are as meats and viands are, *some* of good, *some* of evil substance."—*Arcopagitica*, ed. Arber, p. 43.

"Some say he is with the Emperor of Russia,
Other some, he is in Rome."—*Comedy of Errors*, iii. 2.

In Middle.E. we find the singular as well as the plural,¹
as—

"Sum man haþ an 100 wyuȝs, *sume* mo, *sum* less."
MAUNDEVILLE, p. 22.

(c) Singular:—

"Som man desirȝ for to have richesse,
And *some* man wolde out of his prisoun fayn."
CHAUCER, *Knights Tale*.

"He mot ben deed, þe kyng as schal a page;
Som in his bed, *some* in þe deepe see,
Som in þe large feldȝ, as men may se."—*Ib.*

"*Sum* was king and *sum* kumeling (foreigner)."
Gen. and Ex. l. 834.

"*Anum* he sealde fif pund, *sumum* twá, *sumum* án."—*Matt.* xxv. 15.

(b) Plural:—

"*Somme* the hed from the body he smote,
Somme the arms, *somme* the shoulders."
LONELICH'S *St. Graal*, p. 128.

"Thus may men se that at thoo dayes *summe* were richere then
summe and redier to give elmesse."—CAPGRAVE, p. 10.

"Of *summe* sevene and sevene, of *summe* two and two."—*Ib.* p. 16.

"He bylevede ys folc *summe* aslawe and *some* ywounded."—ROBERT
OF GLOUCESTER, l. 4855.

Byron (*Don Juan*) uses *some's* = *one's*—

"Howsoe'er it shock *some's* self-love."

Heywood uses, *some's*—

"But of all *some's* none is displeased
To be welcome."

231. *Some* is also used indefinitely with *other*, *another*—

"Who . . . hath . . . not worshipped *some* idol or another."
THACKERAY'S *History of H. Esmond*.

¹ Abbott's *Shakespearian Grammar*, p. 6.

"By *some* device or other."

SHAKESPEARE'S *Comedy of Errors*, i. 1.

"By *some* accident or other."—HOBBS.

"*Some . . . many*—"

"She pulleþ up *some* be þe rote,
And *manye* wiþ a knyf sche schereþ."—GOWER.

332. COMPOUNDS OF SOME.—*Somebody, something, someone, somewhat, othersome, some-who.*

Somebody—

"Ere you came by ther grove I was *somboddy*,
Now I am but a noddý (*i.e.* a nobody)."

Damon and Pythias, in Dodsley's *Old Plays*.

Something—

"When as we sat and sigh'd,
And look'd upon each other, and conceived
Not what we ail'd, yet *something* we did ail."

DANIEL'S *Hymen's Triumph*.

"For't must be done to-night,
And *something* from the palace."—*Macbeth*, iii. 1.

"Sir, you did take me up when I was nothing,
And only yet am *something* by being yours."

B. and F. *Philaster*.

Some who—

"But if *somewho* þe flamme staunche."—GOWER'S *Confess.* i. 15.

"þan preyede þe rich mon Abraham
þat he wolde sende Lazare or *sum oþer wnam*
To hys breþryn alle fyve."

R. OF BRUNNE'S *Handlyng Synne*, p. 209.

Somewhat—

"From them I should learn *somewhat*, I am sure,
I never shall know here."—WEBSTER'S *Duchess of Malfy*.

"*Duch.* What did I say?

Ant. That I should write *somewhat*."—*Ib.*

"There is *somewhat* in the winde."

Damon and Pythias, in *Old Plays*, i. 193.

"þer where he was schotte, anoþer chappelle standes, and *somwhat* of þat tre."—R. OF BRUNNE'S *Chron.*

"He come to Pers þere he stode
And askede hym sum of hys gode,
Sumwhat of hys cloþing."—R. OF BRUNNE'S *Handlynge Synne.*

"þi broþer haþ *sumwhat* ageins þec."—WICKLIFFE, *Matt.* v. 23.

"*Sumwhatt* Icc habbe shawedd ȝuw."—Orm. 958.

Some one replaced the O. E. *sum man*.

"*Some one* comes."—LONGFELLOW.

"*Some one* among all,
Shew me herself or g^o. e."—T. HEYWOOD'S *Silver Age*.

In Middle English, and here and there even in authors of the eighteenth century, as still dialectally, *body* is often used for *person*.

"The beste *body* of the world in bendes was ibrougt."—ROBERT OF GLOUCESTER, 489.

"It shall be given away to some poor *body*."—WALTON, *Angler*, 56.

See New English Dictionary, s.v. *body*.

Robert of Brunne has *sum oun* (*Handlynge Synne*, p. 294)
= some one.

Somdel = somedeal, is very common for *somewhat*.

Other some—

"*Other some* [houses are] made] with reede."—HAKLUYT, p. 504.

"Though some be lyes
Yet *other some* be truc."—DODSLEY'S *Old Plays*, ii. p. 74.

233. All and some—

This phrase is exceedingly common in Middle E. and is equivalent to *all and one* = *one and all*, *each and all*.

"Stop your noses, readers, *all and some*."—DRYDEN, *Abs. and Achit.*

"þe tale ys wrytyn *al and sum*,
In a boke of Vitas patrum."

R. OF BRUNNE'S *Handlyng Synne*, l. 169.

"For everi creature go schal
By þat brugge, *sum* or *al*."

Old Eng. Miscell. p. 225.

By tmesis we have "*all together and sum*."

"Whyle they were *alle together and sum*."

Play of the Sacrament, l. 402.

"Neither fals wittenesse thou noon bere

On no manys matere, *al neither somme*."—*Babe's Boke*, p. 49.

"(I have) nother witte enough *whole and some*."

Damon and Pythias, Old Plays, p. 232.

234. **One** (O.E. *án*, Middle English *on*, *oon*) is the numeral *one* with extended applications. It is used substantively and adjectively. When used substantively, it has a plural **ones** and a genitive **one's**, and may be compounded with *self*.

"*One* can only attribute the chameleon character in which *one* seems to figure to the want of penetration of *one's* neighbours."—*Evening Standard*, Sat. Oct. 1, 1870, p. 1, col. 3.

"Once more I am reminded that *one* ought to do a thing *oneself* if *one* wants it to be done properly."—*Ib.* p. 1, col. 3.

"It is a pretty saying of a wicked *one*."

TOURNEUR'S *The Revenger's Tragedy*.

"Go, take it up, and carry it in. 'Tis a huge *one*; we never kill'd so large a swine; so fierce, too, I never met with yet."—BEAUMONT AND FLETCHER, *The Prophetess*.

"To yeelde *one's* heart unto commiseration is an effecte of facilitie, tendernesse, and meeknesse."—MONTAIGNE'S *Florio*, p. 2.

"Well, well, such countefeit jewels

Make true *ones* oft suspected."—WEBSTER'S *White Devil*.

235. Sometimes *one* = *some one* :—

"But here cometh *one*; I will withdraw myself aside."—LILY'S *Sapho and Phao*.

"I hear *one's* pace, 'tis surely Carracas."

R. TAYLOR'S *The Hog hath lost his Pearl*.

"For taking *one's* part that is out of power."—*King Lear*, i. 3.

236. Chaucer uses *one* as a substantive with an adjective where it seems to be a substitution for *wight*, or *person*, as—

"I was a lusty *oon*."

CHAUCER, *The Prologue of the Wyf of Bath*, 605.

In the thirteenth century we find *thing*, properly neuter, used in a similar manner (cp. the modern *poor thing*!).

"So þat þis tuo *lipere þinge*: were at one rede."¹

Early Eng. Poems, p. 50.

One is used for *thing* in *Chevelere Assigne*, p. 15:

"But what broode *on* is þis on my breste,

* * * * *

And what *longe on* is þis þat I shall up lyfte."

But this *one* is sometimes used instead of repeating the noun, as—

"Who embrace instead of the true [religion] a false *one*," where Hooker, Book v. ch. ii. 2, omits the indefinite *one*.

So Milton, *Areop.* p. 45: "It is a blank virtue, not a pure."

This usage does not explain the employment of *one* when it is preceded by a demonstrative, as *the*, *this*, &c., as *the mighty one*. Here the older writers employed the definite adjective with a final (inflexional) *e*, as *the gode*. The loss of this ending no doubt led to the introduction of *one* to supply its place. See p. 60.

237. The indefinite *one*, as in *one says*, is sometimes, but wrongly, derived from the Fr. *on*, Lat. *homo*. It is merely the use of the numeral one for the older *man*, *men*, or *me*.

¹ *Lithere thinge* = wicked ones. This phrase is applied to Quend ride (Kenelm's sister), and Askebert (Kenelm's guardian).

In the 'Morte d'Arthur' *man*¹ is replaced by *one* when it relates to a *feminine* word.¹

- "He is *man* of such apparayle
Off hym I have fulle mychelle drede."—*Morte d'Arthur*, p. 69.
- "Launcelot þan full styllle stode,
As *man* þat was moche[l] of myght."—*Ib.* p. 118.
- "And *one* that bryghtest was of ble."—*Ib.* p. 142.

238. Sometimes *he* occurs where we use *one*²—

"He com himself alast *ase þe þet* was of alle men veirest."—*Ancren Riwle*, p. 388.

Ase þe þet = *as he that* = *as one that*.

"The sunne nis boten a schadewe *ase þe þet* loseþ here liht."—*O.E. Hom.* First Series, p. 185.

Ase þe þet, = *as she that* = *as one that*.

"As *he* that ay was henþ and fre."—*Morte d'Arthur*, p. 23.

Cp. "—— he died
As *one that* had been studied in his death,
To throw away the dearest thing he own'd."—*Macbeth*, i. 4.

"As *one* who would say, come follow . . ."
Belphegor in LAMB'S *Dram. Poets*, Bohn's Series, p. 532.

239. **Man.**

"For your name;
Of . . . and murderess, they proceed from you,
As if a *man* [= one] should spit against the wind;
The filth returns in's [= one's] face."—WEBSTER'S *White Devil*.

"As though a *man* would say," &c.—DRANT'S *Sermons*.

¹ The form *men* for the singular, from which *me* comes by falling away of *n*, is to be explained by the fact that in the twelfth century, a final *-an* became *-en*; but *men* is often treated as a plural form in Middle E.

² This use of *one* after *as* deserves some notice, as it has never been thoroughly explained.

This idiom answers to the Latin *quippe qui*, and therefore, *one* is the substitute for a relative. In the twelfth and thirteenth centuries, we find a *relative* instead of *one*; in later times *he* and *man* were substituted for it.

"Vor þe more þat a *mon* can, þe more wurþe he is."—ROBERT OF GLOUCESTER.

"Vor, bote a *man* conne Frenss, *me* telþ of him lute."—*Ib.*

"So, þat *man* þat wolde [= *siquis*] him wul arise, delicacy is to despise."—GOWER, iii. 40.

"Off þys bataille were to telle
A *man* þat it wele undyrstode
How knyhtes undyr sadels felle."—*Morte d'Arthur*, p. 89.

240. *Appositional use of one.*

This use of *one* has become archaic, having been replaced by the partitive genitive.

"I am *oon* the fayreste."—CHAUCER'S *Troilus and Cryseide*, c. v. 1.

"He was *oon* in sooth, without excepcioun,
——— *oon* the best on lyve."—*Ib. Compl. of L. Lyfe*, xxiii.

"Lawe is *one* the best."—*Ib.* iii. 189.

"For thys is *one* the mostē *synne*."—ROBERT OF BRUNNE, p. 6.

In Shakespeare we find *one* with superlatives—

"He is *one* the truest manner'd."—*Cymb.* i. 6.

"*One* the wisest princce."—*Hen. VIII.* ii. 4.

In the fifteenth century we find the partitive form in use, as—

"*One* of the strengtst pyl."

LONELICH'S *Seynt Graal*, vol. i. p. 101.

Cp. the old use of *some*. See § 229.

241. Use of *one* before proper names.¹

"You may say *one* Albert, riding by
This way, only inquired their health."—R. TAYLOR'S *Lingua*.

242. For use of *one* = own, self, alone, see § 183.

¹ For other instances see *Hist. Outlines of English Syntax*, § 263.

243. *One* = the same.

"That's all *one* to me."—GREEN, p. 86.

"'Tis all *one*
To be a witch as to be counted *one*."

DECKER'S *Witch of Edmonton*.

244. *None*, *no* (O. E. *nān*, Middle English *non*, *noon*, *na* = *ne* + *ān* = not one).

No is formed from *none* by the falling away of *n*, and stands in the same relation to *none* as *my* and *thy* to *mine* and *thine*, and *a* to *an*.

None is used substantively and absolutely, and *no* adjectively—

"But I can finde *none* that is good and meke."

HAWES, *P. of P.* p. 136.

"For surely there's *none* lives but ¹ painted comfort."

KYD'S *Spanish Tragedy*.

"Thou shalt get kings, though thou be *none*."

Macbeth i. 3.

It seems to be emphatic after the substantive—

"Satisfaction can be *none* but by pangs of death."

Twelfth Night, iii. 4.

"And save his good broadsword he weapon had *none*."

W. SCOTT.

In Middle E. (fourteenth century) *non* (none) and *no* are used much in the same way as *an* and *a*; *none* before a vowel, &c.

"And for to fall it hath *none* impediment."

HAWES, *P. of P.* p. 44.

245. *No*, though equivalent to *not one*, is often united to a plural substantive; thus we find in Middle English:

"*Non* Houses."—MAUNDEVILLE, p. 63.

None is sometimes followed by *other*—

"Thou shalt have *none other* gods before me."—*Deut.* v. 7.

¹ But = *that has not painted*, &c.

In Middle English it is always *non other*, not *no other*, which would have sounded as strangely as *a other*.

246. **No one** is tautological, but it evidently replaces the Middle English *no man*, *no wight*.¹

Sometimes *not one* is used in its place.

247. **Nothing**, pl. **Nothings**.

"The other sorts of devils are called in Scripture *dæmonia* . . . and which St. Paul calleth *nothings*: for an idol, saith he, is *nothing*."
—HOBBS, v. p. 2111.

248. **Aught**, *nāught*—

Aught, *ought* (O. E. *āwiht*, *āht*). *Awiht* contains the prefix *ā* (as in O. E. *āghwylc* for *ā* + *ghwylc*, each; *āhwæðer*, *āwðer*, Middle E. *outher*, *āghwæðer*, *ægðer* = *either*) the original signification of which is *ever*, *aye* (cp. Goth. *aiw*, Gr. *αἰ*; and *wiht* (Goth. *waihts*), *wight*, *whit*, creature, thing, something.

"For *auht* I know, the rest are dead, my lord."

WEBSTER'S *Appius and Virginia*.

"Amongst so many thousand authors you shall scarce find one by reading of whom you shall be *anywhit* better."—BURTON'S *Mel.* p. 7.

Cp. "To luite me to muȝhe *wiht*."—*Castel of Love*, l. 638.

"þereof he ete a lytelle *wight*."—*Morte d'Arthur*, p. 36.

"Syr Ewwayne, knowistow any *wight*?"—*Ib.* p. 5.

249. **Naught** (O. E. *nāwiht*,² *nāht*) and **not** (Middle English *noȝht*, *nat*) are negative forms of *auht*, so that *not*

¹ "Sche was vanyssht riht as hir liste,
That *no wyht* bot hir-self it wiste."

GOWER, in *Spec. of E. Eng.* p. 371.

² As an adverb *no whit* is found as well as *naught* = *not*.

"I am *no whit* sorry."—DODSLEY'S *Old Plays*, ii. 84.

"Ector ne liked *no wight*
The wordis that he herd there."—*Morte d'Arthur*.

a whit is pleonastic; in *a whit* the *a* must not be considered as the article; *a whit* = *hwit* = *awiht* or *aught*.

Naughts is used by Greene (p. 157) for *nothings*—

“We country sluts of merry Fressingfield
Come to buy needless *naughts* to make us fine.”

250. **Enowh** (O.E. *genóh*, Middle English *ynough*, *ynow*, *enow*, *anow*. Cp. Goth. *ga-nôhs*, Ger. *genug*).

Sometimes we find *enow* used as a plural, corresponding to Middle English *inohe*, *inowe*, in which the plural is marked by the final *e*.

“Have I not cares *enow* and pangs *enow*?”—BYRON.

“Servile letters *enow*.”¹—*Areopagitica*, p. 40.

251. **Any** (O.E. *ænig* = *ullus*) is an adjective formed from the numeral *an* one. In Middle English we find *æni*, *æi*, *ci*, for *any*, and *Lazamon* has genitives, *æies* and *æines*.

We find a distinction in Middle English made between the singular *eny*, *any*, and the plural *anie*, *anye*.

“And jif þat *eni* him wraþed adoun, he was anon.”

ROBT. OF GLOUC.

252. Compounds are *anyone*, *anybody*, *anything*, Middle English *any wight*, *any man*, *eny persone*.

“Unneþe *eni mon* miȝte [h]is bowe bende.”—ROBT. OF GLOUC.

Any originally had a negative *nænig* = *nullus*, of which a trace exists in the twelfth century.

“Niss *næni* þing” = there is not anything.—*Orm.* i. 61, l. 1839.
“*Nani man*” = not any man.—*Ib.* p. 216. We use *none* instead:
“And as I had rather have *any* do it than myself, yet surely myself rather than *none* at all.”—ASCHAM’s *Scholemaster*, p. 157.

¹ Milton (*Areopagit.* p. 28, ed. Arber) writes *anough* adv

253. **Each** [O.E. *æghwylc* = *æ-ge-hwylc*; *ælc* = *æ-ge-lic*, from *æ* (see remarks on *aught*), and *lic* = like; later forms are *elc*, *elch*, *euch*, *uch*, *ych*, *ech*, *ilk*].

It is properly singular, but has acquired a distributive sense. It is used substantively and adjectively.

“Of the fruit
Of *each* tree in the garden we may eat.”—MILTON'S *P.L.* ix. 661.

“Simeon and Levi took *each* man his sword.”—*Gen.* xxxiv. 25.

“Cloven tongues sat upon *each* of them.”—*Acts* ii. 3.

“At *each* his needless heavings.”—*Winter's Tale*, ii. 3.

“I a beam do find in *each* of three.”—*Love's Labour's Lost*, iv. 3.

Each and *every* are used alike by Spenser:—

“She *every* hill and dale, *each* wood and plaine did search.”—*F. Q.* i. 2, 8.

254. *Each* is sometimes used for *both*—

“And *each* though enemies to *either's* reign,
Do in consent shake hands to torture me.”

SHAKESPEARE'S *Sonnets*, 28.

Hence it often happens that *each* is wrongly followed by pronouns and verbs as the plural number.

“*Each* in her sleep *theyselves* so beautify.”—*Rape of Lucrece*, 404.

“How pale *each* worshipful rev'rend guest
Rise from a clergy or a city feast.”—POPE'S *Imit. Hor.* ii. 75.

255. In the twelfth and following centuries, we find *each* followed by *an*, *a*, *on* = one.

“*Ille an* unncleue lusst,
Annd *ille an* ifell wille.”—*Orm.* 5726.

“Heo bigonne to fle *echon*.”—ROBT. OF GLOUCESTER, 578.

“*Ilkon* of þe knightes had a barony.”—R. OF BRUNNE'S *Chronicle*.

“And *ilka* lym on *ilka* syde.”—HAMPOLE'S *P. of C.*

“Thei token *ech on* by hymself a peny.”—WICKLIFFE, *Matt.* xx. 10.

“For hit clam *uche a* clyffe.”—*Allit. Poems*.

Each one is a remnant of this, as—

"The princes of Israel, being twelve men: *each one* was for the house of his fathers."—*Num.* i. 44.

Each other sometimes = each alternate, every other, its—

"*Each other* worde I was a knave."—*Grammar Gurton's Needle*.

256. **Every** is a compound of *ever* and *each*, O.E. *æfre ðe*, Middle English *æver-alc*, *ever-ilk*, *ever-each*. It was rare in the oldest stage of the language; it occurs frequently in *Lazamon* and other writers of the thirteenth century.

"*Everilc* he keste, on *ilc* he gret (wept)."—*Gen. and Ex.*

"*Everich*¹ of you schul brynge an hundred knyghtes."

CHAUCER'S *Knights Tale*, l. 993.

"Carry hym aboute to *every* of his friendes."

Fardell of Facion, 8.

"*Every* of your wishes."—*Antony and Cleop.* ii. 2.

We also find Middle English *evrichon*, *everilkan* = everyone. *Everybody* and *everything* are later formations.

The history of *every* having been forgotten in the sixteenth century, we find *every each*, like *not a whit*, *no one*, &c.

"*Every each* of them hath some vices."—BURTON'S *Atel.* p. 601.

257. **Either** represents two distinct O.E. words: (1) *æg-hwæðer*, Middle English *withēr*, *aither*; (2) *ā-hwæðer*, *āwðer*, *āðer*, Middle E. *owther*, *outler*, *other*.²

The former of these, from *ā* (= modern *aye* always) + *gē* + *hwæðer* (= whether) originally meant "each of two";

¹ Here means *each* one [of you (two)].

² Cp. "For *owþer* he sal þe tanc hate
And þe toþer luf after his state,
Or he sal þe tanc of þam mayntene
And þe toþer despyse,"—HAMPOLE'S *P. of C.* p. 31.

"Bot wiþ þe world comes Dam Fortone,
þat *ayþer* hand may chaunge sone."—*Id.* p. 36.

our modern *either*, which represents this in form, has still sometimes, though rarely, its old self.

"The king of Israel and Jehoshaphat sat *either* of them on his throne."—2 *Chron.* xviii. 9.

The O.E. *āhwæðer* (*ā + hwæðer*) meant 'one or the other of two.' It survives as *owther* or *awther* in various dialects, where it is now regarded as a vulgar mispronunciation of *either*; the conjunction *or* is a contraction of it. The modern *either*, while in form representing *āghwæðer*, is with regard to its usual sense the representative of *āhwæðer*. This change of meaning is found already in writers of the fourteenth century, but was not common until the sixteenth century.

Either has a possessive form—

"Where *either's* fall determines both their fates."

ROWE, *Lucan*, vi. 13.

"They are both in *either's* power."—*The Tempest*.

"Confute the allegations of our adversaries, the end being truth, which once fished out by the harde encounter of *either's* arguments . . . both partes shoulde be satisfied."—GOSSON'S *School of Abuse*, p. 46.

258. **Neither**, the negative of *either* as *naught* is of *aught*, appears first in the thirteenth century; the earlier word was O.E. *ndhwæðer*, *ndwper*, Middle English *nouther*,¹ which still survives in dialects; its contracted form is *nor*.

"Now new, now old, now both, now *neither*,
To serve the world's course, they care not with whether."

ASCHAM'S *Scholemaster*, p. 48.

"*Neither* of either, I remit both twain."

Love's Labour's Lost, v. 2.

"Truth may lie on both sides, on either side or on *neither* side."—CARLYLE'S *French Revolution*, iii. 163.

"Ac *hor nouper* [but neither of them] . . . in pur rizte nas."—ROBERT OF GLOUCESTER, *Specimens of E. Eng.*, p. 68.

¹ Cp. "He ne had *nouper* strenþe ne myght,
Nouper to ga ne ghit to stand."—HAMPOLE'S *P. of C.* p. 13.

It is sometimes, but wrongly, found with a plural verb,
as—

“Thersites’ body is as good as Ajax’,
When *neither* are alive.”—*Cymb.* x. 2. *

259. **Other** (O.E. *ōðer*, Goth. *anþar* = one of two, second and other. See remarks on numerals, p. 172).

This word originally belonged to the strong declension, making its plural *othre*, leaving *other* as the plural when the final *e* fell away, as

“When *other* are glad
Than is he sad.”—SKELTON, 79.

“Some *other* give me thanks.”—*Comedy of Errors*, iv. 3.

“Some *other* . . . do not utterlie dispraise learning, but *they* saie,”
&c.—ASCHAM’S *Scholemaster*, p. 54.

Cp. “*Other some*.”—*Acts* xvii. 18.

A new plural was afterwards formed by the ordinary plural suffix *s*.

Other’s (O.E. *ōðres*, *ōðeres*) is a true genitive.

“Let ech of us hold up his hond to oper,
And ech of us bycome *operes* broþer.”
CHAUCER, in *Specimens of E. Eng.* p. 353.

“And eyther dranke of *operes* blode.”—*Gest. Rom.* p. 19.

260. **Another** is a later form; ¹ *sum other* was once used instead of it.

261. **One another**, **each other**, are sometimes called reciprocal pronouns; but they are not compounds: in such phrases as “love each other,” “love one another,” the construction is, *each* love the *other*, *one* love *another*; *each* and *one* being subjects, and *other* and *another* objects, of their respective predicates.

In Middle English we find *each to other* = to each other.

¹ *Anoper* is used in the *Ormulum*.

We sometimes find *ayther other* = either other, in this sense, as—
 “Uche payre by payre to plesse *ayþer oþer*.”—*Allit. Poems*, p. 46.

Other what = *what else* occurs in Dodsley's *Old Plays*, ii. 67—

“What strokes he bare away,
Other-what was his gaines, I wot not.”

“And (he) spekeþ of *oþer-hwat*.”—*Ancren Riwle*, p. 96.

262. **Else** (O.E. *elles*, the genitive of the lost pronoun *elle*, corresponding to Lat. *alius*¹).

We find it in Middle English after *ought*, *nought*, as in modern English. It has acquired an adverbial sense = *aliter*. Cp. Middle English *owiht elles* = aught of other = aught else.

“A pouder * * * *
 I-maad, ouþer of chalk, ouþer of glas,
 Or *som what elles*.”—CHAUCER, l. 13078.

“So, what for drede and *ellis*, þey were boþ ensuryd.”
Tale of Beryn, l. 1122.

In the oldest English we had *elles hwæt* = aught else.²

Sometimes we find *not else* = nought else.

“In Moses' hard law we had
Not else but darkness.
 All was *not els* but night.”—DODSLEY'S *Old Plays*, p. 39.

263. **Sundry** (O.E. *synderig* = singularis, Middle English *sundrie*, *sondry* = separate) is now used in the plural—

“For *sundry* weighty reasons.”—*Macbeth*, iii. 1; iv. 3.

It occurs, however, sometimes as a singular in older writers in the sense of separate.

“Alc hefde *sindri* moder.”—*Laz.* i. 114.

“þor was in helle a *sundri* sted.”—*Gen. and Ex.* 1984, l. 37.

¹ In the oldest English we find a comparative *elra*.

² *El's what* in Chaucer.

So in Shakespeare—

“The *sundry* contemplation
Of my travels is a most humorous sadness.”

As You Like It, iv. 1.

264. **Several** is used for *sundry*—

“To every *several* man.”—*Julius Caesar*, iii. 2.

“Two *several* times.”—*Ib.* v. 5.

“Truth lies open to all, it’s no man’s *several*.”—BEN JONSON.

“By some *severals*.”—*Winter’s Tale*, i. 2.

265. **Divers** (Middle English *diverse*, Fr. *divers*), and **different** (Fr. *différent*), and Middle E. **sere**, **ser** (O.N. particular, separated), are sometimes employed for *sundry*.

266. **Certain** (from Lat. *certus*) is singular and plural, and is used substantively and adjectively.

“A *certain* man planted a vineyard.”—*Mark* xii. 1.

“There came from the ruler of the synagogue’s house *certain* which said.”—*Ib.* v. 35.

“To hunt the boar with *certain* of his friends.”—*Venus and Adonis*,

Cp. its use as a substantive in the following passages!—

“A *certayn* of varlettes and boyes.”—BERNER’S *Froissart*.

“A *certain* of grain.”—*Fardell of Facion*.

“Beseeching him to lene him a *certeyn*,
Of gold, and he wold quyt it him ageyn.”

CHAUCER, *Chanouns Yemannes Tale*, 471.

“Sit I wolle have anoþer *certayne*.”—*Gesta Romæ* p. 23.

CHAPTER XIV

VERBS

267. VERBS may be classified into (a) transitive, requiring an object, as "he *learns* his lessons ;" (b) intransitive, requiring no object, as "the sun *shines*."

268. Transitive verbs only have a passive voice.

Transitive verbs include *reflexive verbs*, in which the agent and object are identical, as "he *hurt himself*," "I'll *lay me* down ;" and *reciprocal verbs*, as "to *love one another*." These verbs admit of no passive voice.

269. Intransitive verbs include a large number that might be classed as frequentative, diminutive, inceptive, desiderative, &c. :

Some intransitive verbs, by means of a preposition, become transitive, and may be used passively, as "the man *laughs at* the boy," "the boy was *laughed at* by the man."

Some intransitive verbs have a causative meaning, and take an object, as "he ran," "he *ran* a thorn through his finger." See Causative Verbs, under the head of VERBAL SUFFIXES.

270. Some transitive verbs are *reflexive* in meaning, though not in form, and appear at first sight as if used intransitively, as "he *keeps* aloof from danger," i.e. he *keeps himself*, &c. Cp. "he *stole* away to England."

Sometimes a transitive verb has a *passive sense*, with an active form, as "the cakes *ate* short and crisp" = the cakes *were eaten* short and crisp.

271. Intransitive verbs may take a noun of kindred meaning or object, called the cognate object, as to *die* a death, to *sleep* a sleep, to *run* a race.

272. Verbs used with the third person only are called impersonal verbs, as *me thinks*, *me seems*, *it rains*, *it snows*.

273. The verb affirms action or existence of a subject, under certain conditions or relations, called **voice**, **mood**, **tense**.

In some languages verbs undergo a change of form for voice, mood, and tense; the root being modified by certain suffixes before the person-endings are added.

Thus in Latin the root *reg* is modified by the suffix *s*, to express *time* or *tense*; so the root *reg* becomes by this addition a *stem* to which the person ending *i* is suffixed; whence *rex*, the perfect of *reg-ere*.

274. **Voice**.—There are two voices—(a) the *active*, in which the subject of the verb is represented as acting, as "I *love* John;" (b) the *passive*, in which the subject of the verb is represented as affected by the action, as "I am *loved* by John."

The passive voice in the original Aryan language, was formed by inflexion, and had primarily a reflexive sense. Of the inflected passive the only trace in English is the obsolete verb *hight* = is called. The passive voice in English is expressed by the passive participle combined with auxiliary verbs. The Scandinavian dialects have a special form for reflexive verbs. See p. 9.

275. There are five **moods**—(1) the *indicative* makes a simple assertion, states or asks about a fact; (2) the *subjunctive* expresses a possibility; it is sometimes called the conditional or conjunctive mood; (3) the *imperative* denotes

that an action is commanded, desired, or entreated; (4) the *infinitive* states the action without the limitations peculiar to *voice, tense, &c.*, and is merely an abstract *substantive*; (5) *participles* are adjectives.

276. The **tenses** are three—(a) *present*, (b) *past*, (c) *future*.

An action may be stated with reference to time, present, past, and future, as (a) indefinite, (b) continuous and imperfect, (c) perfect, (d) perfect and continuous.

Hence we may arrange the *tenses* according to the following scheme:—

TENSE.	INDEFINITE	IMPERFECT CONTINUOUS	PERFECT.	PERFECT CONTINUOUS.
Present . . .	I praise.	I am praising.	I have praised	I have been praising.
Past ¹ . . .	I praised.	I was praising	I had praised	I had been praising.
Future . . .	I shall praise	I shall be praising.	I shall have praised.	I shall have been praising.

277. For *I praise*, *I praised*, we sometimes use *I do praise*, *I did praise*, which are by some called emphatic present and past tenses.

I am going to praise is called *intentional present*.

I was going to praise " " *past*.

I shall be going to praise " " *future*.

In English we have only *change of form* for the *present* and *past* (or *preterite*); the other tenses are expressed by the use of auxiliary verbs.

¹ Modern grammarians use the term *preterite*.

278. There are two **numbers**, singular and plural ; three **persons**, first, second, and third.

279. **Conjugation**.—Verbs are classified according to the mode of expressing the past indefinite tense, into (a) strong verbs, (b) weak verbs.

Strong Verbs.—The past (or preterite) tense of strong verbs is expressed by a change of vowel only.

Weak Verbs.—The past (or preterite) tense indefinite of weak verbs is expressed by adding to the verbal root the syllable *d* or its phonetic substitute.

The distinction between strong and weak verbs must be clearly borne in mind.

- (1) *Strong verbs* have vowel change only ; their past (or preterite) tense is *not* formed by adding *-d* or *-t*.
- (2) The passive participles of strong verbs do *not* end in *-d* or *-t*, as do those of weak verbs.
- (3) All p. participles of strong verbs once ended in *-en* (*-n*) ; but in very many p. participles this suffix has dropped off. The history of a word is sometimes necessary to be known before its conjugation can be decided.

Weak verbs sometimes have a change of vowel, and the addition of *-d* or *-t*, as *bought* ; but this change is no result of vowel-gradation.

STRONG VERBS:

280. The strong verbs fall into two divisions :—

(1) In Aryan the perfect tense was characterized not only by a difference of root-vowel from the present tense, but also (usually) by *reduplication*, a phenomenon which is well known from the Greek, e.g. *φεύγω* (I flee), *πέ-φευγα* (I have fled) ; *λείπω* (I leave), *λέ-λοιπα* (I have left). In Teutonic reduplication was by degrees supplanted, and the mode of forming the preterite by means of vowel-change only took its place. In Old English only a few verbs clearly point to an original reduplication :—

GOTHIC.		OLD ENGLISH.	
PRESENT.	PRÆTERITE.	PRESENT.	PRÆTERITE.
haita (I call)	hai ¹ -hait (I called)	* hâte	hêht
laika (I leap)	lai ¹ -laik (I leapt)	lâce	lē-olt
rêda (I advise)	rai ¹ -rôþ (I advised)	ræde	rê-ord

but Gothic, in this as in many other points, has kept the old features more faithfully than the other Teutonic dialects, and from it we learn that all the verbs belonging under the first or *fall* class (see below, § 283) were originally reduplicating verbs.

(2) The formation of the preterite of all the other strong verbs is based upon the regular change of the root-vowel, *vowel-gradation*, which is chiefly accounted for by difference of accent.² Thus the roots with the vowel *e* appear in three different shapes according to three degrees of accent:—

(a) When the accent was shifted from the root to the suffix, as, for instance, in the past participle (cp. Greek *ποιητός*, *τακτός*), the root-vowel, which thus had become destitute of accent, disappeared altogether. Instances: Gothic *t-unþus*, O.E. *tôþ* (tooth), from the root *et* (to eat; Latin *ed-ere*); Gothic *s-ind*, O.E. *s-indon* (they are) from the root *es* (to be; Latin *esse*); Gothic *tr-iu*, O.E. *tréu(w)* (tree; Greek *δῶρυ*).

(b) Under certain other conditions of accent (not determinable with certainty) the root-vowel appeared as *e* or *i*. Instances:—Gothic *etan*, O.E. *etan* (to eat), Latin *edere*; Gothic *bairan*, O.E. *beran* (to bear), Latin *ferre*; Gothic *wairþan*, O.E. *weorþan* (to become), Latin *verti*.

(c) Under a third variety of accent the root-vowel appeared as *a*. Instances:—The preterite singular of the above-

¹ *ai* has the sound of *e* in *πῆ-φευγᾶ*.

² In the original Aryan language what is called *accent* was a raising of musical pitch on a particular syllable; but this seems to have coincided, at least usually, with a stress on the accented syllable.

mentioned verbs are in Gothic *at* (I ate), *bar* (I bore), *warþ* (I became).

Just as *e* and *a* are seen changing with one another in roots with the vowel *e*, we find the root-vowel *a*, under similar conditions, regularly changing with *ō*. Instances:—Gothic *ik fara*, O.E. *ic fare* (I proceed); but *ic fōr* (I proceeded). *Ik baka*, O.E. *ic bace* (I bake); but *ic bōc* (I baked).

Setting apart vowel-relations of minor importance, we find in Teutonic, six groups of vowel-gradation, and accordingly six classes of strong verbs.

1.	a	ō	ō	a
2.	e(i)	a	ē	u(o)
3.	e(i)	a	ē	e
4.	e(i)	a	u	u(o)
5.	ī	ai	i	i
6.	eu	au	u	u

The Old English equivalents for these vowels are:—

1.	a	o	ó	a
2.	e	æ	æ	o
3.	e	æ	æ	e
4.	i(e)	a	u	u(o)
5.	ī	ā	ī	ī
6.	éu	éa	u	u

281. The following instances illustrate these groups in Gothic and Old English:—

I. a—ō.

<i>fara</i> (I proceed) fare	<i>fōr</i> (I proceeded) fōr	<i>fōrum</i> (we proceeded) fōron	<i>farans</i> (proceeded) ¹ [ge]faren
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II. e—ā—e—ō.

<i>baira</i> ² here	<i>bær</i>	<i>berum</i> bæron	<i>bairans</i> ³ [ge]boren
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¹ Past participle.

² *ai* here has the sound of *e* in *bed*.

³ *au* here has the sound of *o* in *borne*.

III. e—a—ê—e.

qīþa (I speak)
cweðeqaþ (I spoke)
cwæðqēþum (we spoke)
cwædonqīþans (spoken)
[ge]cweden

IV. e—a—u—u.

binda (I bind)
binde
helpe (I help)band (I bound)
band
hulþ (I helped)bundum (we bound)
bunden
hulpon (we helped)'oundans (bound)
bunden
holþen (helped)

V. i—ai—i.

beita¹ (I bite)
bitehait (I bit)
bāthitum (we bit)
bitonbitans (bitten)
biten

VI. e—au—u.

kīusa (I choose)
céosekaus (I chose)
céaskusum (we chose)
curonkusans (chosen)
coren

282. If we look closely at the above columns, which represent successively the present, preterite singular, preterite plural, and the past participle, we find two striking facts:—

(1) the root-vowel of the past participle is invariably short;

(2) in several groups the final stem-consonants of the present and preterite singular is different from that of the preterite plural and the past participle of the same verb, e.g. cweðe (I speak)—cwæð (I spoke)—cwædon (we spoke)—cweden (spoken); céose (I choose)—céas (I chose)—curon (we chose)—coren (chosen).

Other instances of this so-called "grammatical change" are:—

sléa² (I slay), slók (I slew), slógon (we slew), slægen (slain);
ðwéa² (I wash), ðwók (I washed), ðwógon (we washed), ðwægen (washed);
téo² (I drag), téah (I dragged), tugon (we dragged), togen (dragged):

¹ *ei* has the sound of *ee* in *green*.

² These forms represent prehistoric *slahu*, *þwahu*, *tiohu*.

sníðe (I cut), snáð (I cut), sniðon (we cut), sniden (cut) ;
 séoðe (I seethe), séað (I seethed), sudon (we seethed), soden (sodden) ;
 fréose (I freeze), fréas (I froze), fruron (we froze), froren (frozen) ;
 forléose (I lose), forléas (I lost), forluron (we lost), forloren (lost, forlorn).

NOTE.—The modern English adjectives *forlorn*, *sodden*, are instructive remains of the “grammatical change.”

We see from the above instances that there is a regular relation between *h*, *p*, *s*, the voiceless consonants, as belonging to the present and the preterite singular, and the corresponding voiced consonants *g*, *d*, *r*, as belonging to the preterite plural and past participle.

Both these facts, namely, the shortness of the root-vowel in the past participle, and the change of final stem-consonants are easily explained, if we bear in mind that, in the prehistoric Teutonic period, both the preterite plural and the past participle had the accent on the suffix, not on the root-vowel ; cf. Sanskrit *bhid* (to break)—*bibheda* (I broke), with the accent on the *e*—*bibhidimā* (we broke), with the stress on the *a*—*bhinā* (broken), also with the stress on the *a*.

Thus the shortness of the root-vowel is explained by its want of accent, and, according to Verner's law, the final stem-consonants became voiced.

The strong verbs, thus, naturally fall into two divisions, reduplicative and gradation verbs, and both together form seven classes, which are properly named after characteristic verbs. They may be remembered by aid of the following doggerel couplet :—

“If e'er thou *fall*, the *shake* with patience *bear* .
Give ; seldom *drink* ; *drive* slowly, *choose* with care.”¹

¹ Skeat, *Principles of English Etymology*, i. p. 159.

283 DIVISION I. *Class I., or Fall-Class.*

PRES.	PAST.	P.P.	O.E.	PRES.	PRET.	P.P.
(1) fall	fell	fallen	O.E.	fealle	féoll	feallep
hold	held	held	"	healde	héold	healdén
behold	beheld	beholden ¹	"			
hang	hung	hung	"	hange	héng	hangen
		hangen ²	"			
gang* (= go)	—	—	"	gange	geong	gangen
(2) sweep	sweep ²	swepen ²	"	swápe	swéop	swápen
—	hight	hoten ²	"	háte	héht	háten
			"		hét	
blow	blew	blown	"	bláwe	bléow	bláwen
know	knew	known	"	cnáwe	cneow	cnáwen
crow	crew	crown ²	"	cráwe	creow	cráwen
sow	sown	sown	"	sáwe	séow	sáwen
mow	mew ²	mown	"	máwe	méow	máwen
throw	threw	—	"	þrawe	þréow	þráwen
(3) let	let ²	leten ²	"	læte	leort,	læten
	leet ²		"		leot, lét	
(4) sleep	slep ²	slepen ²	"	slæpe	slép	slæpen
	sleep ²		"			
leap	lep ²	loþen ²	"	hlæpe	hléop	hlæpen
	leep ²		"			
beat	bet ²	beaten	"	béate	béot	béaten
	beet ²		"			
	heat		"			
hew	few ²	hewn	"	héawe	héow	heawen
(5) row	ew ²	rowen ²	"	rówe	réow	rówen
grow	grew	grown	"	grówe	gréow	grówen
flow	flew ²	flown ²	"	flówe	fléow	flówen
(6) weep	wep ²	wepen ²	"	wépe	wéop	wépen

(1) Many verbs once belonging to this division have either become obsolete or have adopted a weak form for the past tense and p. participle, as—

Wall (to boil up, O.E. *wecallan*), **fold**, **walk**, **low**, **row**, **span**, **leap**, **sweep**, **weep**.

In the provincial dialects we find strong forms of some of these verbs still in use, as *to row*, past *rew*, p.p. *rowen*; *to leap*, past *lop*, *loup*, p.p. *loupén*; *to weep*, past *wep*; *to sleep*, past *slep*; *to beat*, past *bett* (Scotch). Cp. :—

¹ Forms marked * are obsolete, and weak forms have taken their places, as *slept*, *hewed*, *wept*, *leapt*, *rowed*. Some of these weak forms came in early—*slepte*, *dredde* = dreaded, as in the *Ormulum*.

² *Let* in twelfth century has a weak form, *let-te*, *lette*.

"Some to the ground were *lopen* from above."—SURREY, *Æn.* ii.

"She brouhte the grey, from hevne to erthe and *seew* it. The erthe ther it was *sowe* was never ered."—*Pilgrimage*, p. 43.

"For while they be *folden* together as thorns."—*Nahum* x. 10.

"And sighing sore, her hands she wrung and *fold*."

SACKVILLE'S *Induction*.

(2) **Crow** is now often weak in pret. as well as in p.p.

(3) **Hew, sow, mow**, have now weak past tenses, but strong passive participles, as well as weak ones.

In the Bible we have p.p. *hewn* and *hewed*.

The provincial dialects have strong forms, as *hew* = hewed, *sew* = sewed, *mew* = mowed, *snew* = snowed.

(4) **Hung** was a new pret. from a causative verb *hing*; *hanged* pret. and p.p. are from the derivative weak verb, O.E. *hangian*.

(5) Some passive participles have sprung from the past tense, as **hung** = *hangen*; **held** = *holden*; **fell** = *fallen* (Shakespeare, *Lear*, iv. 6).

Others have contracted forms of p.p., as *sown* = *sowen*, &c.

(6) **Hight** = was called, originally the preterite of *hátan* (to call), deriving from *heht*, the older form of *hét*, answering to Gothic *haihait*. The passive meaning of *hight* is accounted for by the analogy of the present *hátte* = Gothic *haitada* (I am called), which was confounded with *hâte* (I call) = Gothic *haita*.

"Johan *hight* that oon, and Alayn *hight* that oðer."

CHAUCER, *The Reeves Tale*.

"That wretched wight

The Duke of Gloucester, that Richard *hight*."

SACKVILLE, *Duke of Buckingham*.

"An ancient fabric rais'd to inform the sight,
There stood of yore, and Barbican it *hight*."—DRYDEN.

284. DIVISION II. *Class I. of Drink-Class.*

O.E.						
PRES.	PAST.	P.P.	PRES.	PRET. sing.	PRET. pl.	P.P.
(1) help	halp ¹ holp [*]	holpen	helpe	healp [*]	hulpon	holpen
delve	dalf [*] dolve [*]	dolven [*]	defe	dealf	dulforf	dolfen
melt	malt [*] molt [*]	molten	melte	mealt	multon	molten
yield	yold [*] yald [*]	yolden [*]	gilde	geald	guldon	golden
swell	swoll [*] swall [*]	swollen	swelle	sweal	swullen	swollen
(2) swim	swam	swum	swimme	swamm	swummon	swummen
climb	clamb [*] clomb [*]	clomben [*]	climbe	clamb	clufibon	clumben
began	began	begun	binne	ongann	ongunnon	ongunnen
spin	spun span [*]	spun	spinne	spann	spunnon	spunnen
win	wan	won	winne	wan	wunnon	wunnen
run	ran	run	rinne	ran	runnon	runnen
bind	bound	bound	binde	band	bundon	bunden
find	found	found	finde	fand	fundon	funden
grind	ground	ground	grinde	grand	grundon	grunden
wind	woud	wound	winde	wand	wundon	wunden
slink	slunk	slunk	—	—	—	—
drink	drank	drunk	drince	dranc	druncon	druncen
shrink	shrank	shrank	for-scrince	for-scranc	scrunccon	scruncen
sink	sank	sunk	since	sanc	suncon	suncen
stink	stank	stunk	stince	stanc	stuncon	stuncen
sing	sang	sung	singe	sang	singon	sungen
spring	sprang	sprung	springe	sprang	sprungon	sprungen
sting	tang	tung	stinge	stang	stungon	stungen
swing	swung	swung	swinge	swang	swingon	swungen
wring	wrung	wrung	wringe	wrang	wrungon	wrungen
ring	rang	rung	hringe	hrang	hrungon	hrungen
cling	clang	clung	clinge	clang	clungon	clungen
ding	dang [*] dung [*]	dungen [*]	—	—	—	—
(3) carve	carf [*]	corven [*]	ceorfe	cearf	curfon	corfen
starve	starf [*]	storven [*]	steorfe	stearf	sturfon	storfen
worth	warth [*] worth [*]	wqrthen	weorthe	wearth	wurthou	worthen
burst	burst barst [*]	burst borsten [*]	berste	bearst	burston	borsten
thrash	brast [*] throph [*]	brasten [*] throshen [*]	bersce	bersce	bursccon	borscen
(4) fight	fought	fought	feohte	feahrt	fuhton	fohten

(1) To this division once belonged **milk, yield, swallow, bellow, stink, burn, mourn, spurn, ding, carve, starve, burst.**

¹ Forms marked thus * are obsolete.

Cp. "Forth from her eyen the crystal tears out *brast*."

SACKVILLE'S *Induction*.

"When Adam *dalve*, and Eve span,
Who was then the gentleman?
Up start the carle and gathered good,
And thereof came the gentle blood."

BP. PILKINGTON (Parker Soc. p. 125).

"I waked : herewith to the house-top I *claml*."—SURREY, *Æn.* ii.

"Who willingly had *yielden* prisoner."—*Id.*

"The *golden* ghost his mercy doth require."—SURREY'S *Ecclesiastes*.

"Many founden it [*greyn*] and *throsshen* it."—*Pilgrimage*, p. 43.

"Which hath *dung* me down to the infernall bottom of desolation."
—NASH'S *Lenten Stuff*.

(2) We have many verbs with mixed strong and weak forms ; the past tense may be weak and the p.p. strong, as, past, *clomb*, and p.p. *climbed* ; or the past may be strong and the p.p. weak, as, past, *delved*, p.p. *dolven*. *Clemde* occurs in fourteenth-century English.

Swollen has almost given way to *swelled*.

Helped has replaced the old past, *holp*;¹ *holpen* as a p.p. is archaic, *helped* being now the regular form.²

(3) Sometimes a strong participle is used simply as an adjective, as **drunken**, **molten**—"a *drunkēn* man," "*molten* lead ;" in *Micah* i. 4, *molten* is used as p.p.; so in Elizabethan writers, *sunken*, *shrunkēn*.

"And the metalle be the hete of the fire *molt*."

CAPGRAVE, p. 9.

"My heart is *molt* to see his grief so great."

SACKVILLE'S *Induction*.

"As gold is tried in the oven, wherein it is *molten*."—COVERDALE.

¹ *Holp* is a preterite in Shakespeare. See *King John*, i. 1; *Rich. II.* v. 3.

² *Holpen*: "He hath *holpen* his people Israel"—Eng. Bible; "he *halp* his brother"—CAPGRAVE, p. 30; *holp* for *holpen* is found in Shakespeare, *Tempest*, i. 2.

(4) The verbs **swim**, **'begin**, **run**, **drink**, **shrink**, **sink**, **ring**, **sing**, **spring**, have for their proper past tenses *swam*, *began*, *ran*, &c., but in older writers (sixteenth and seventeenth centuries) and in colloquial English we find forms with **u**, which have come from the preterite plural and passive participles.

Sometimes we actually find the past tense doing duty for the passive participle; thus Shakespeare has **swam** = *swum* (*As you Like It*, iv. 1), **drank** = *drunk*.

(5) Many of those forms that originally had **'a** in the past now have **u**, as **spun**, **lunk**, **stunk**, **stung**, **flung**, **swung**, **wrung**, **clung**, and **strung** (a modern form). "*Sche flang from me*" (Heywood's *Proverbs*, C. 4). *Slang* (1 *Sam.* xvii. 49).

(6) **Wound** = past of *to wind* (up), but *winded* = past tense of *to wind* a horn; but Walter Scott has "his horn he *wound*" (*Lady of the Lake*).

(7) *Foughten* occurs in *Henry V.* iv. 6: cp. "a hard-foughten feeld" (Heywood's *Proverbs*, E. 111). *Starven*, p.p. is used by Sackville: "her *starven* corpse" (*Induction*); "hunger-starven," (Hall's *Satires*); but "hunger-storved" (*Gam. Gurton's Needle*).

285. DIVISION II. *Class II., or Bear-Class.*

	PRES.	PAST.	P. P.	PRES.	O. F. PRET.	P. P.
(1) steal		stole	*stolen	stele	stael ¹	stolen
(2) come		*came	come	cume	com	cumen
(3) bear		bore	born	berc	bær	
		bare	borne*			
shear		shore*	shorn	scere	scær	scoren
tear		tore	torn	tere	tær	toren*
(4) speak		spoke	*spoken	spreca	spræc	spreccen
		spake*	spoke*	hæce	hæc	brocen

¹ The pret. pl. has a long vowel, as *stælon*, *cwæmon*, *bæron*, &c.

(1) The old verbs **quele** (to die)¹ and **nim** (to take, rob) once belonged to this class.

(2) In Middle English (fourteenth century, especially in the Northern dialects) we find the old *æ* represented often by *a*:—*stal*, *bar*, *schar*, *tar*, *spac*, *brac*; *bare*, *brake*, *spake*, are archaic; in the Southern dialect we find *æ* often changed to *e*, as *ber*, (*beer*), *spec*, *brek*.

(3) **Born** and **Borne**, though the same words, have different meanings: *borne* = carried; *born* = brought forth.

(4) In older writers, and sometimes in modern poetry, we find the *n* falling away (as in Old English): hence *broke*² = *broken*; *spoke*³ = *spoken*; *stole*⁴ = *stolen*.

Shakespeare has "I have *spake*" (*Henry VIII.* ii. 4).

(5) Shakespeare, *Cymbeline*, v. 5, has *becomed*.

(6) The *e* in *stole*, &c., is no inflexion; it merely marks the length of the preceding vowel.

286. DIVISION II. Class III. or Give-Class.

	PRES.	PAST.	P. P.	PRES. ;	O. E. PRES.	P. P.
(1)	give	gave	given	gife	geaf	gifen
	weave	wove	woven	wefe	wæf	wefen
(2)	eat	ate	eaten	e	æt ⁵	eten
	get	got	gotten	ongite ⁶	ongeat	ongeten
		gat*	got			
	sit	sat	sat	sitte	sæt	seten
			seten*			

¹ The causative of this verb is the weak verb *quell*, originally "to kill."

² *Measure for Measure*, v. 1.

³ Walter Scott, *Kenilworth*.

⁴ Milton.

⁵ Also *dt* with abnormal long vowel.

⁶ *Ongite* = perceive, understand.

PRES.	PAST.	P.P.	PRES.	O.E. PRET.	P.P.
tread	trod	trodden	trede	træd	treden
bid	bade bid	bidden bid	bidde	bæd	beden
—	quoth	—	cwethe	cwæð	cweden
(3) —	was	—	—	wæs	wesen
(4) wreak	—	wroken*	—	—	—
lie	lay	lain lien*	licge	læg	legen
see	saw-	seen	seo	seah	ge-segen
pl. sâwon					

(1) **Quoth**, orig. *ally* perfect, is now used as a present tense; the root of the present is seen in *bequeathe*. The present of **was** is lost; we have parts of the verb in *wast*, *were*, *wert*.

(2) **Mete** (measure), **wreak**,¹ **weigh**, **fret**, **knead**, once strong, have become weak. Cp.

"We shall not all *unwroken* die this day."—SURREY, *Æn.* ii.

(3) In Middle English (thirteenth and fourteenth centuries), we find *gaf* and *gef*, *et* and *ect*, *quath* and *qued*.

(4) **Bid** = *bade*, arises out of the passive participle, the vowel of which had previously been assimilated to that of the present tense.

Boden = *bidden*, invited. "It happed hym that was *boden*, in lokyng on the walle to espye this ymage," &c. (Caxton's *Golden Legend*, fol. cclxix. col. 1). This verb properly belongs to Class VI. (Div. II.).²

Heywood uses the phrase "a *geven* horse" (*Proverbs*, B. ii.).

(5) Walter Scott has **eat** = *ate*.

(6) **Gat** is used by Shakespeare for *got* (past).

¹ Spenser has a strong p.p. *wroken* (*Shep. Cal.*).

² Cp. O.E. *béode*, *béad*, *boden*, to bid, order.

(7) The ending of the passive participle has sometimes fallen away, as in *bid* = *bidden*; *sat*, the past indef., is used instead of the old participle *seten*.

Double forms of the p.p. are *aten* and *eat*; ¹ *bidden* and *bid*; ² *gotten* and *got*; ³ *trodden* and *trod*; ⁴ *woven* and *wove*; ⁵ *lien* ⁶ and *lain* (= M.E. *i-leye* = *ileien* = O.E. *gelegen*).

287. DIVISION II. *Class IV. or Shake-Class.*

PRES.	PAST.	P.P.	PRES.	O.E. PRET.	P.P.
stand	stood	stood	stande	stod	standen
swear	swore	sworn	swearge	swor	sworen
shape	shope*	shapen*	scape	scop	scapen
heave	hove*	hoven*	hebbe	ahof	hafen
grave	grove*	graven*	grafe	gróf	grafen
shave	shove*	shaven*	scafe	scóf	scafen
lade	—	laden	hlade	hlód	hladen
wash	wesh*	washen*	wasce	wosc	wascen
bake	book*	baken*	bace	bóc	bacen
shake	shook	shaken	scace	scóc	scacen
forsake	forsook	forsaken	—	—	—
awake	awoke	awoke	wace	wóc	wacen
draw	drew	drawn	drage	dröh	dragen
gnaw	gnew*	gnawn*	gnage	gnöh	gnagen
laugh	lough*	laughed	hlehe	hlöh	—
slay	slew	slain	sléa	slöh	slégen
wax	wex*	waxen*	weaxe	wéox	weaxen

(1) *Fare, wade, ache, gnaw, wash, step, laugh, yell, wax, bake*, ⁸ have at present weak past tenses and passive participles.

¹ Shakespeare, *King John*, i. 1.

² Milton, *Paradise Lost*, vii. 304.

³ English Bible.

⁴ Shakespeare, *King Richard II.* ii. 2.

⁵ Milton, *Paradise Lost*, ix. 839.

⁶ English Bible and Shakespeare, now archaic.

⁷ Scotch has *leugh* = laughed (past).

⁸ Spenser has *woxe*, past *woxe*, p.p.

⁹ *Baken* = baked, p.p. in *Leviticus* ii. 4. "My spirit is *waxen* weak and feeble."—Ps. lxxvii. COVERDALE.

Cp. "Sapience this bred turnede and *book* it."—*Pilgrimage*, p. 44.

Beuk = book occurs in Ramsay's *Gentle Shepherd*, ii. 1.

Gnew = gnawed occurs in *Mirroure for Magistrates*, vol. ii. p. 74.

"*Gnew* and fretted his conscience."—TYNDALL'S *Prol. to Jonas*, Parker Soc. p. 456. Shakespeare has *begnawn*, *Tam. of Shrew*, iii. 2.

"He *slay* a lion."—CAPGRAVE.

"Both *slayn* and *hedid*" (= beheaded).—*Ib. Chron.* p. 61.

"Zoroaster *low* as no child did but he."—*Ib.* p. 26.

"There he *wesh* me, there he bathed me."—*Pilgrimage*, p. 8

"And in here owen blood han *washen* hem."—*Ib.*

"She . . . *heff* us hire axe to me."—*Ib.* p. 111.

"She said her hede *ok* ~~ok~~ *La Tour Landry*.

(2). (a) Strong forms have been replaced by weak ones in the past tense of **chape**, **grave**, **shave**, **lade**, &c. Strong participles of these are occasionally met with, as **shapen** (*Ps.* li. 5), **graven** (p.p. in Byron, *Childe Harold*, i.; as an adjective, in English Bible, *Ex.* xx. 4; p.p. *Ps.* xcvi. 7), **laden**; *loaden* is a mixture of *laden* and *loaded* (Milton, *P. Lost*, iv. 147; Bacon, *Essays*).

"And masts *unshave* for haste."—SURREY, *Æn.* iv.

"With such weapons they *shope* them to defend."—*Ib. Æn.* ii.

(b) We have also double forms, a strong and a weak one, in the past tense, as **woke** and **waked**; **hove** and **heaved**.

(c) We sometimes in Shakespeare find forms of the 'past tense employed for the p. participle, as **arose** (*Comedy of Errors*, v. 1) = *arisen*; **shook** (*King John*, iv. 2; *Othello*, ii. 1; Milton, vi. 219) = *shaken*; **forsook** (*Othello*, iv. 2) = *forsaken*; **took** (*Twelfth Night*, iv. 2; *Julius Cæsar*, ii. 1) = *taken*; **mistook** (*Julius Cæsar*, i. 2; Milton, *Arctides*) = *mistaken*; **shaked**, too, occurs for *shaken* (*Ps.* cix. 25; *Troilus and Cressida*, i. 3; *Henry V.* ii. 1; *Tempest*, ii. 1).

(3) **Stood**, p.p. is properly a 'past tense; the old p.p. = *standen*. Cp. the p.p. *understanden* and *understand*.

• "Have I *understand* thy mind?"—COVERDALE, p. 457.

(4) **Sware** occurs in *Mark* vi. 23, *Titus Andronicus*, iv. 1; but the *a* is not original, but probably has come in through false analogy with *spake*, *bare*, &c.

288. DIVISION II. Class V. or Drive-Class.

				O. E.		
	PRES.	PAST.	P. P.	PRES.	PRET. PL.	P. P.
(1)	shine	shone	shone	scīne	scān	scinon scinen
(2)	drive	drove	driven	drife	dráf	drifon drifen
	shrive	shrove	shriven	scrife	gescráf	gescrifon gescrifen
	thrive	throve	thriven	—	—	—
	rive	rove*	riven	—	—	—
(3)	bite	bot*	bitten	bíte	bát	biton biten
	smite	smote	smitten	smíte	snát	smiton smiten
	write	wrote	written	wríte	wrát	writon writen
	a-bide	abode	abiden*	bíde	bád	bidon biden
	chide	chode*	chidden	cíde	—	—
		chid				
	ride	rode	ridden	ríde	rád	ridon riden
	slide	slode*	slidden	áslide	áslád	áslidon ásliden
		slid	slid			
	stride	strode	stridden	stfíde	strád	stridon striden
	writhe	—	*writhen (wreathen)	wríþe	wríf	wriðon wriðen
	rise	rose	risen	árise	árás	árison árisen
	arise	arose	arisen			
	strike ¹	struck	struck stricken	stríce	strác	stricon stricen

(1) **Gripe** (=grasp), **spew**, **slit**, **writhe**, **rive**, once belonged to this class, but have become weak; **riven** is used as an adjective.

(2) Most of these verbs have changed the *d* of the past into *o*, as **shone**, **drove**, &c.

¹ *Orm.* has *strike*, *strac*, as in modern English; in the oldest English *stríce* = I go.

The older forms sometimes occur, as **drave** (in English Bible and Shakespeare), **smate**, &c. "Absalom *drave* him out of his kingdom" (Coverdale); "*strike* me with thunder" (Surrey, *Æn.* ii.); "he with his hands *strave* to unloose the knots" (*Ib.*).

(3) Just as we found *sung* = *sang*, *swum* = *swam*, properly preterite plural forms, so we find, in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, **driv** = *drove*, **smit** = *smote*, **rid** = *rode*, **ris** = *rose*, **writ** = *wrote*. Cp. **bit** for Middle English *bot*, *boot*.

(4) Shortened forms of the participles occur, as **writ** = *written* (*Twelfth Night*, v. 1; *Richard II.* ii. 1), **smit** = *smitten*, **chid** = *chidden*, **slid** = *slidden*.

Chid, O.E. *cidde*, Middle English *chidde*, is a weak form: "the eldest *chidde* with the knight" (*La Tour Landry*, p. 19).¹

(5) Past tenses are also used for the participles, as **drove** = *driven*, (2 *Henry VI.* iii. 2), **rode** = *ridden* (*Henry IV.* v. 3; *Henry V.* iv. 3), **smote** = *smitten* (*Coriolanus*, iii. 1), **wrote** = *written* (*Lear*, i. 2; *Cymbeline*, iii. 5), **arose** = *arisen* (*Comedy of Errors*, v. 1).

(6) Weak forms of the passive participle are **rived** (*Julius Caesar*, i. 3), **strived** (*Rom.* xv. 20), **shrived** (*King John*, ii. 4).

(7) In **shone** for *shinen*, **abode** for *abiden*, **struck** for *stricken*, we have the substitute of the past tense for the participle.

¹ *Chode* occurs in the Bible (*Gen.* xxxi. 36, *Numbers* xx. 3). *Chide*, p.p. in Shakespeare.

(8) For **stricken** and **driven** we sometimes find *strucken* (Milton, ix. 1064; *Julius Caesar*, iii. 1); "the clock hath *strucken* four" (Lodge's *A Looking-glass for London*); *droven* = *driven* (*Antony and Cleopatra*, iv. 7).

(9) **Shined** = *shone* (*Ezek.* xliii. 2). *Shinde* occurs in the fourteenth century.

(10) **Wreathen**, as adjective, occurs in *Timon of Athens*, iii. 2, "that sorrow-wreathen root;" "wreathen cables" (Surrey, *Æn.* iv.). It occurs in *The New Shinde World* as a p.p.: "out of which may be *wrong* or *writhen* water." *Abiden* occurs in the English Bible. "He had *bid*" = *abiden* = endured (*Sidney's Arcadia*).

289. DIVISION II. *Class VI. or Choose-Class.*

O. E.

PRES.	PAST.	P.P.	PRES.	PRET. <i>sing.</i>	PREF. <i>pl.</i>	P.P.
creep	crop*	cropen*	créope	créap	crupon	cropen
shove	shof*	shoven*	scúfc	scéaf	scufon	scofen
cleave	clave*	cloven	cléofc*	cléaf	clufon	clofen
	clove					
shoot	shot	shotten*	scéote	scéat	scuton	scoten
seethe		sodden	séofc	séað	sudon	soden
	sod					
choose	chasc*	chosen	céose	céas	curon	coren
	chose					
freeze	froze	frozen	fréose	fréas	fruron	froren
lose	lost	losen*	forléose	forléas	forluron	forloren
suck	sook*	soken*	súce	séac	sucon	socen
fly	flew	flown	fléoge}	fléah	flugon	flogen
flee	flew*	—	fléu }			

(1) Many verbs belonging to this class have become weak, as **creep**,¹ **cleave**, **seethe**, **lose**, **chew**, **rue**, **brew**,

¹ Cp. Scotch *crap* (*Gentle Shepherd*, v. 1).

dive, shove, slip, lot, fleet, reek, bow, suck, lock. Cp.

"She *shof* me with hire knyfe."—*Pilgrimage*, p. 132. •

"*Shoven* on thilke spere."—*Ib.* p. 130.

"Ther *sook* never noon suich milk."—*Ib.* p. 205.

(2) **Creep, cleave, bereave, flee, lose, shoot,** shorten the long vowel of the present in the weak form of their past tenses.

(3) **Clave** and ~~claven~~ occur in the English Bible (*Genesis* xx. 3, *Psa.* lxxviii. 15, *Acts* ii. 3); *cleft*, p.p., in *Micah* i. 4 (cp., too, a "cleft palate," but a "cloven foot"); *chase* in Surrey's poems;¹ *shotten* occurs in *shotten herring* (1 *Henry IV.*) = a herring that has deposited its roe; *forlorn* (Milton, *Paradise Lost*, ii. 615) is now only an adjective.² Milton has *frore*, Spenser *frorne* = *frozen*; *froze* = *frozen* occurs in Shakespeare, 2 *Henry IV.* i. 1. *Sodden* occurs in English Bible; cp.

"Twice *sod* simplicity."—*Love's Labour's Lost*, iv. 2.

"*Sodden* water."—S. ROWLANDS.

"Beer he protests is *sodded* and refined."—*Ib.*

"With rost or *sod*."—*Ib.*

(4) **Flee** has a weak past tense and p.p. *fled*; these are really from another verb, in Middle English *flede*.

290. Some verbs that have now a strong past tense, or p.p. were once weak, as—

¹ "She¹ton for love, Surrey for lord thou *chase*."—P. 92 (Bell's edition).

² "With gastly lookes as one in manner *lorne*."—SACKVILLE, *Induction*, st. 78.

Forlore (cp. *frore*): "Thou hadst not spent thy travail thus, nor all thy pain *forlore*."—SURREY (ed. Bell), p. 80.

PRES.	PAST.	P. P.
(1) wear	wore ware *	worn
(2) stick	stuck stack*	stuck
(3) betide	betid ¹	betid
(4) dig	dug digged*	dug digged*
(5)*hide	hid ¹	hidden hid
(6) spit	spit* spat ¹	spitten* spitted* spat
(7) show	—	shown shewed showed

Stack = *stuck* is used by Surrey :

"Which he refused and *stack* to his intent."—*Virgil*, ii. (ed. Bell), p. 170.

WEAK VERBS.

291. The verbs of the strong conjugation we have seen form the past (or preterite) tense by a change of the root-vowel ; weak verbs by means of a suffix *-d* or *-t*.

In Gothic and Old Saxon this suffix was, in the first person singular *-da*, in Old E. *-de*.

GOthic.	OLD ENG.
<i>nasi-da</i> (I saved)	<i>nerede</i>
<i>nasi-dēs</i> (thou savedst)	<i>neredēs(t)</i>
<i>nasi-da</i> (he saved)	<i>nerede</i>
<i>nasi-dēdum</i> (we saved)	<i>neredon</i>
<i>nasi-dēduþ</i> (you saved)	<i>neredon</i>
<i>nasi-dēdun</i> (they saved)	<i>neredon</i>

¹ *Betid*, *hid* and *spat* are only apparently strong ; in O.E. we find *be-tlā-de*, *hýd-de*, *spátte*.

292. The suffix *-da* was, in Teutonic, united to the root by means of:—

(1) *-i*, shortened from *-jo* or *-io*; *þ*

(2) *-ō*;

(3) *ē* (in Gothic *ai*); and, accordingly, there were three different classes of weak verbs in the Teutonic dialects:—

(1) The *-jo* or *-io* class. This *-jo* is no longer to be found in its integrity in Old English, but it gives the whole class its characteristic feature, namely the *vowel-mutation*.

GOthic.	OLD ENG.
<i>nas-ja</i> (I save)	<i>nerie</i>
<i>nas-jis</i> (thou savest)	<i>neres(t)</i>
<i>nas-jip</i> (he saves)	<i>nered</i>
<i>nas-jam</i> (we save)	<i>neriað</i>
<i>nas-jip</i> (you save)	<i>neriað</i>
<i>nas-jand</i> (they save)	<i>neriað</i>

All the causative verbs belong to this class:—

bīdan (to bide)—*bādan* (to cause to bide, to constrain, to stop);
līðan (to go)—*lādan* (to cause to go, to bring forth, to lead);
rīsan (to rise)—*rāran* (to raise);
bīgan (to bow)—*bāgan* (to cause to bow, to bend);
drīncan (to drink)—*dren(e)an* (to give drink, to drench);
sīncan (to sink)—*senc(e)an* (to cause to sink);
sittan (to sit)—*settan* (to set);
licgean (to lie)—*lecg(e)an* (to lay).

The verbs of the *-jo* class form their preterite in several ways:—

(a) Verbs with a short root-vowel add *-ede* to the stem, as *ner-e-de* (I saved) from *nerian* (to save), *her-e-de* (I praised) from *herian* (to praise), *styr-e-de* (I stirred) from *styrian* (to stir).

(b) Verbs with a long root-vowel, or a short root-vowel followed by two original consonants, form their preterite with *-de* (not *-ede*), the root-vowel being mutated just as in the present stem; e.g. *dēm-de* (I deemed) from *dēman* (to deem), *dēl-de* (I dealt) from *dēlan* (to deal), *fyl-de* (I filled) from *fyllan* (to fill).

(c) A certain number of verbs belonging to this conjugation formed their preterite, in the prehistoric period, by adding the tense-suffix directly to the root, the characteristic *i* of the conjugation being dropped. Hence, while these verbs mutate the root-vowel in the present stem, they retain the original vowel in the preterite, which is formed with *-de* (after voiceless consonants *-te*) without a preceding *e*. Thus we have :—

sellan, Gothic *saljan* (to sell), but *s(e)al-de* (I sold);
tellan (to tell), but *t(e)al-de* (I told);
hygean (to buy), but *boh-te* (I bought);
réc(e)an (to reck), but *rôhte* (I recked).
séc(e)an (to seek), but *sôh-te* (I sought);
wyrc(e)an (to work), but *worh-te* (I wrought).¹

Here belong also the verbs *bring* and *think*, whose preterites were in Teutonic *branhhta*, *thanhta*, and became in prehistoric Old E. *bronhta*, *thonhta*, and after the dropping of *n*, *brôhte*, *ðôhte*.²

(2) The *ô*-class. The *ô* in Old E. is not recognisable in the present tense, but it is characteristic of the preterite and the participle past :—

¹ Other Old E. instances are :—

cwellan (to kill), *cwealde* (I killed), *gecweald* (killed);
stellan (to lace), *svalde* (I placed), *gesteald* (placed);
streccean (to stretch), *streahte* (I stretched), *gestreahte* (stretched);
ðeccan (to cover), *ðeahhte* (I covered), *geðeahht* (covered);
weccean (to wake), *wæhte* (I woke), *geweaht* (woke).

² *Methought* is the preterite of *ðyncan* (to seem), while *thought* belongs to *ðencan* (to think). In Mid. E. the two verbs are no longer kept apart.

GOthic.	OLD E.
<i>salb-ō</i> (I anoint)	<i>sealfie</i>
<i>salb-ōs</i> (thou anointest)	<i>sealfast</i>
<i>salb-ōþ</i> (he anoints)	<i>sealfað</i>
<i>salb-ōm</i> (we anoint)	<i>sealfiað</i>
<i>salb-ōþ</i> (you anoint)	<i>sealfiað</i>
<i>salb-ōnd</i> (they anoint)	<i>sealfiað</i>
<i>salb-ō-da</i> (I anointed)	<i>sealfode</i>
<i>salb-ō-ðes</i> (thou anointedst)	<i>sealfodes(t)</i>
<i>salb-ō-da</i> (he anointed)	<i>sealfode</i>
<i>salb-ō-dēdum</i> (we anointed)	<i>sealfodon</i>
<i>salb-ō-dēduþ</i> (you anointed)	<i>sealfodon</i>
<i>salb-ō-dēdun</i> (they anointed)	<i>sealfodon</i>

A great many ~~transitive~~ verbs that are derived from adjectives belong to this class:—

bealdian (to be brave), from *beald* (brave, bold);
blācian (to be pale), from *blāc* (pale);
cōlian (to become cool), from *cōl* (cool, cold);
hwītian (to be white), from *hwīt* (white);
longian, *langian* (to grow long), from *long* (long);
nearwian (to become narrow), from *nearu* (narrow).¹

(3) *ē-* (Gothic *ai-*) class. The O.E. conjugation differs materially from that of Gothic and O.H.G.

GOthic.	OLD E.
<i>haba</i> (I have)	<i>hæbbe</i>
<i>habas</i> (thou hast)	<i>hæfas(t)</i>
<i>habaiþ</i> (he has)	<i>hæfaþ</i>
<i>habam</i> (we have)	<i>hæbbaþ</i>
<i>habaiþ</i> (you have)	<i>hæbbaþ</i>
<i>haband</i> (they have)	<i>hæbbaþ</i>
<i>hab-ai-dā</i> (I had)	<i>hæfde</i>
<i>hab-ai-dēs</i> (thou hadst)	<i>hæfdes(t)</i>
<i>hab-ai-dā</i> (he had)	<i>hæfde</i>
<i>hab-ai-dēdum</i> (we had)	<i>hæfdon</i>
<i>hab-ai-dēduþ</i> (you had)	<i>hæfdon</i>
<i>hab-ai-dēdun</i> (they had)	<i>hæfdon</i>

¹ If the verbs derived from the same adjectives belong to the *jo-* class, they have a transitive or rather causative meaning: *byldan* (to make bold), *blācan* (to bleach), *cōlan* (to cool, chill), *hwītan* (to make white), *longan* (to make long), *genyrwan* (to make narrow). Cf. Latin *albare* (to make white) and *albere* (to be white), from *albus*.

Of this class, which was very numerous even in Old High German, there are only a few remnants left in Old E., namely the verbs *halþan* (to have), *libban* (to live), *segg(e)an* (to say), *hygg(e)an* (to think), and a few others.

293. In Middle E., when unaccented *a*, *o*, and *u* became *e*, the three classes of weak verbs were no longer distinguished from one another, so that in Modern E. we have in reality only one class with the vowel *e* between root and suffix.

(1) This *e*, however, is only preserved when the suffix *-d* is to be united to a root ending in a dental, as *head-e-d*, *waft-e-d*, *wett-e-d*.

In all other cases, though we write *ed*, we drop the *e* in pronunciation, and *loved*, *praised*, &c., are pronounced as *lovd*, *prairzd*, &c.

If the verb ends in a voiced consonant or a vowel, *ed* has the sound of *d*; if in a voiceless consonant, it has the sound of *t*.

(a) There are some orthographical variations—(1) the change of *y* (not preceded by another vowel) into *i* before the addition of *ed*, as *carry*, *carried*; (2) doubling of a simple consonant after a short vowel before *ed* is added, as *beg*, *begg-ed*, *wet*, *wett-ed*.

(b) The loss of the final *e* (of O.E. *-ed-e*) no longer enables us to distinguish the past tense from the passive participle.

(2) Before the addition of the suffix *d* the radical vowel is sometimes shortened, as *hear*, *heard*.

(3) If a root ends in *d*, the suffix *d* is dropped and the radical vowel, if long, is shortened, as—

PRES.	PAST.	P.P.
lead	led	led ¹
feed	fed	fed
read	read	read
spread	spread	spread

¹ O.E. *lǣde*; *lǣd-de*; *lǣd-ed*: later forms, *lede*; *ledde* (*ladde*); *iled*, *ilad*.

(4) *t* has replaced *d* in some verbs ending in *-l* or *-n*, as—

PRES.	PAST.	P. P.
feel	felt	felt
deal	dealt	dealt
smell	smelt	smelt
mean	meant	meant

(5) Sometimes *d* and *t* are found side by side, as—

dream	dreamt	dreamt
	dreamed	dreamed
burn	burnt	burnt
	burned	
learn	learnt	learnt
	learned	

(6) *t* replaces *d* after *p*, *v*, *ch* (but the spelling *ed* is retained), *s*, and the radical vowel, if long, is shortened, as—

creep	crept	crept
sleep	slept	slept
weep	wept	wept
cleave	cleft	cleft
lose	lost	lost
fetch	fetcht (pronounced fetcht)	

Elizabethan writers have the following old forms :—

blench	blent	blent
drench	dreynt	dreynt
ming (mingle)	meynt	meynt

Chaucer and other writers of his time have—

siege	seynde	seynd
spreng (sprinkle)	spreynte	spreynd, spreynt
quenche	queynt	queynt
clenche (clinch)	cleynte	cleynt

(7) Verbs ending in *ld*, *nd*, *rd*, change the *d* into *t* in the past tense and passive participle, and the suffix disappears, as—

PRES.	PAST.	P.P.
build	built (builted)	built ¹ (builted)
gild	gilt (gilded)	gilt (gilded)
bend	bent	bent (bended) ²
rend	rent	rent
gird	girt	girt

(8) The suffix *d* is often dropped after *d*, *t*, the combination *st*, *rt*, *ft*, and the present, past, and passive participles have the same form, as—

rid	rid	rid
shred	shred	shred
cut	cut	cut
light	light	light
put	put	put
shut	shut	shut
cast	cast	cast
lift	lift (obsolete)	lift (obsolete)
hurt	hurt	hurt

Some of these verbs have the regular form, as *lighted*, *quitted*, &c., and in O.E. of the fourteenth century we find *cutted*, *putted*.

294. **Catch**, (from O.Fr. *cachier*, low Latin *captiare*) **caught**, **caught**, does not occur in the oldest English; in Laſamon we find *cacche*, *cahte*, *caht*. This verb has conformed to the past tense of *teach*, &c.

Analogous to the above forms we find *fraught* (adj.) as well as *frighted*; *distraught* and *distracted*.

"His head dismember'd from his mangled corpse,
Herself she cast into a vessel *fraught*
With clotted blood."—SACKVILLE'S *Duke of Buckingham*.

"And forth we launch full *fraughted* to the brink."—*Induction*.

¹ We meet with this change in the fourteenth century. In the earlier periods we find *bulde*=built, in which the *d* has dropt or become assimilated to the root.

² These forms have different meanings, as "He was *bent* upon mischief," "On *bended* knees."

295. The following verbs are peculiarly formed—

	PRES.	PAST.	P.P.
(1)	clothe	clothed, clad	cl ^o thed, clad

In the oldest English *clādian* = to clothe ; perf. *clādode*, p.p. *clādod*.

In the thirteenth and following centuries we find *clothien*, *clethen*, to clothe ; perf. *clethed*, *clothed*, and *clad*, *clad* ; p.p. *clothed*, *clad*.

Clad seems to have arisen out of analogy with such O.E. forms as *ladde* = led, *radde* = read.

	PRES.	PAST.	P.P.
(2)	make	made	made
O.E.	mace	macode	macod.

The loss of *k* occurs as early as the thirteenth century ; in northern dialects it is found in the present-stem : *maas* as infinitive, *he mas* for he makes, are as old as the fourteenth century.

(3) **Have, had, had** ; O.E. *hæbbe*, *hæfde*, *ge-hæfd*.

In later periods we have, in the past tense, *hæfde*, *hedde*, *hadde* ; in p.p. *ihaved*, *ihafd*, *yhad*.

(4) **Say, said, said** ; O.E. *secge*, *sægde* (*sæde*), *sægd* (*sæd*).

Lay, laid, laid ; O.E. *lecge*, *legde* (*lède*), *leged*.

The modern *say*, *lay* (= Middle English *seye*, *leye*), come from the inflexional forms which had in O.E. *g* and not *cg*.

Went was originally the past tense of *wend*, O.E. *wendan*, to turn, go ; it replaced O.E. *eo-de*, Middle English *zede*, *yode*.

VERBAL INFLEXIONS.

296. The elements in the verb are (1) the root; (2) mood suffixes; (3) tense suffixes; (4) the person-endings (the mood and tense suffixes come before the person-endings); (5) connecting vowel between root and suffixes.

297. PRESENT INDICATIVE.

In some verbs the person-endings were added at once to the root without any stem-forming suffix, as in the verbs **go** and **do** :—

Go, O.E., sing.,	<i>gā</i>	<i>gāst</i> , <i>gā-þ</i>	= <i>gō</i> , <i>goest</i> (= <i>gō-st</i>), <i>goeth</i> , <i>goes</i> (= <i>gōs</i>).
pl.	<i>gā-ð</i>	<i>gād</i> , <i>gā-ð</i>	= <i>gō</i> , <i>gō</i> , <i>gō</i> .
Do, O.E., sing.,	<i>dō-m</i> , <i>dē-st</i> , <i>dē-ð</i>		= <i>dō</i> , <i>dō-st</i> , <i>dō-th</i> (<i>does</i>).
pl.	<i>dō-ð</i> , <i>dō-ð</i> , <i>dō-ð</i>		= <i>dō</i> , <i>dō</i> , <i>dō</i> .

In other verbs a connecting vowel came in between the root and the personal suffixes; this often disappears in modern English :—

	Goth.	O.E.	
Singular. 1	<i>bair-a</i> ,	<i>ber-e</i>	= <i>hear</i> .
2	<i>bair-i-s</i> ,	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \textit{ber-e-st} \\ \textit{bir-st} \end{array} \right\}$	= <i>hear-e-st</i> .
3	<i>bair-i-þ</i>	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \textit{ber-e-þ} \\ (\textit{bir-þ}) \end{array} \right\}$	= <i>hear-e-th</i> (<i>bear-s</i>).
Plural. 1	<i>bair-a-m</i> ,	<i>ber-a-ð</i>	= <i>hear</i> .
2	<i>bair-i-þ</i> ,	<i>ber-a-ð</i>	= <i>hear</i> .
3	<i>bair-a-nd</i> ,	<i>ber-a-ð</i>	= <i>hear</i> . ¹

298. In the Middle English dialects (thirteenth and fourteenth centuries) we find in the plural—

¹ In O.H.Ger. we have older forms :—

Sing.	1 <i>gā-m</i>	Plur.	<i>gā-mes</i>
	2 <i>gā-s</i>		<i>gā-t</i>
	3 <i>gā-t</i>		<i>gā-nt</i>

Southern. Midland. Northern.

1	<i>ber-eth,</i>	<i>ber-en,</i>	<i>bere</i> (<i>ber</i>).
2	<i>ber-eth,</i>	<i>ber-en,</i>	<i>beres</i> (<i>bers</i>).
3	<i>ber-eth,</i>	<i>ber-en,</i>	<i>beres</i> (<i>bers</i>).

In Chaucer *e* was a distinct syllable, as "I drede nought that eyther thou shalt die," &c. In modern English it has wholly disappeared; in the plural the connecting vowel and suffixes are lost.

In Middle E. (as in *Lazamon*) we find *i* representing the stem-suffix in the infinitive of verbs of the *o*-class and those which in O.E. ended in *-ian*, as *lov-i-en*, *lov-i-e*, &c., and in the present indic. as *Ich lov-i-e*, &c.

Many strong verbs had in Teutonic a stem-suffix *-jo* in the infinitive and present tense; this, like the same suffix in the *-jo* class of weak verbs, is represented in O.E. by a doubling of the final consonant of the root in the infinitive, the first person singular and the plural; as O.E. (1) *sitte* (2) *sit-est*, (3) *sit-eth* = (1) *sit*, (2) *sittest*, (3) *sitteth*.

The silent *e* in some few verbs like *hav-e*, *liv-e*, which adds nothing now to the length of the preceding vowel, was once sounded.

299. PRESENT SUBJUNCTIVE.

This mood originally had a tense suffix which came between the connecting vowel and the personal ending.

	Goth.	O.E.	Eng
Singular. 1	<i>bair-a-u,</i>	<i>ber-e</i>	= bear.
2	<i>bair-a-i-s,</i>	<i>ber-e</i>	= bear.
3	<i>bair-a-i,</i>	<i>ber-e</i>	= bear.
Plural. 1	<i>bair-a-i-ma,</i>	<i>ber-en</i>	= bear.
Singular. 1	<i>sök-j-au,</i>	<i>séc-e</i>	= seek.
	&c.	&c.	&c.

300. PAST INDICATIVE.

Strong verbs in Teutonic lost their stem-vowel and the suffixes of first and third person singular, as:—

	Goth.	O.E.	
Singular. 1	<i>hai-hald</i>	= <i>hæold</i>	= held.
2	<i>hai-hals-t</i>	= <i>hæold-e</i>	= heldest.
3	<i>hai-hald</i>	= <i>hæold</i>	= held.
Plural. 1	<i>hai-haldum</i>	= <i>hæold-on</i>	= held.

301. Weak verbs added the syllable *-de* (*-te*) to the stem; in O.E. the stem-vowel was lost in some verbs (see §§ 287 ff.).

	Goth.	O.E.	
Singular. 1	<i>sôk-i-da</i>	= <i>sôh-te</i>	= sough-t.
2	<i>sôk-i-dēs</i>	= <i>sôk-test</i>	= sough-t.
3	<i>sôk-i-da</i>	= <i>sôh-te</i>	= sough-t.
Plural. 1	<i>sôk-i-dêdu-m</i>	= <i>sôh-to-n</i>	= sough-t.
	&c.	&c.	&c.

302. In the fourteenth century we find the second person-ending *-e* of strong verbs sometimes changed to *est*, as *thou gave* and *thou gavest* (in Wicliffe we find *holpedist*). The old plural *-un*, *-on*, became *-en*, and the *n* frequently falls away, so we have *held-en* and *helde*, &c. In modern English the older endings have all disappeared.

303. PAST SUBJUNCTIVE.

In strong verbs the mood-suffix was *e*, as :—

	Goth.	O.E.	Eng.
Singular. 1	<i>bêr-ja-u</i>	= <i>bære</i>	= bore.
2	<i>bêr-ci-s</i>	= <i>bære</i>	= bore.
3	<i>bêri</i>	= <i>bære</i>	= bore.
Plural. 1	<i>bêr-ci-ma</i>	= <i>bær-e-n</i>	= bore.
	&c.	&c.	&c.

In some weak verbs the suffix of the verb-stem is lost :—

Singular. 1	<i>sôk-i-dêd-ja-u</i>	= <i>sôh-te</i>	= sough-t.
2	<i>sôk-i-dêd-ci-s</i>	= <i>sôh-te</i>	= sough-t.
3	<i>sôk-i-dêd-i</i>	= <i>sôh-te</i>	= sough-t.
Plural. 1	<i>sôk-i-dêd-ci-ma</i>	= <i>sôh-te</i>	= sough-t.

In Gothic pl. we see, (1) *sôk* root, (2) *i* stem-suffix, (3) *dêd* tense suffix, (4) *ja* mood suffix, (5) *u* personal suffix.

304. The IMPERATIVE is properly no mood, but is merely the root + a personal pronoun in the vocative.

In Middle E. the imperative plural ended in *-th*, as *go-eth* (= O.E. *gá-ð*), *go ye*; *ber-eth* (= *ber-að*), *bear ye*.

PERSONAL ENDINGS.

305. (1) In Teutonic, as in all the Aryan languages, the first person present may end in *ō*, later *o*, *u*, *a*, Old English usually *e*—e.g. Gothic *giba* (I give), Old High German *gibu*, O.E. *gife*; this ending answers to Greek *φέρω*, Latin *fero*. But there was another ending, which answered to Greek *μι* in *τίθημι*, of which there are remnants in all the Teutonic dialects (confined to the present tense). In O.E. we find *eom*, *eam*, *am* (I am), *lēom* (I am), *dōm* (I do),

(2) The suffix of the second person was originally *s*. In O.E. we sometimes find *s* for *st*, as *þú hæfes* = thou hast, which is the regular inflexion of the Northern dialects in the fourteenth century; but the ordinary person-ending is *st*.

In Modern English the ending is ordinarily *-est*. This termination is subject to certain phonetic and orthographical modifications:—

(a) After a final *e* *-st* is added, as *love-st*.

(b) *Y* (preceded immediately by a consonant) is changed to *i* before *est*, as *criest*.

(c) In verbs of one syllable with a short vowel, the final consonant is doubled, as *beggest*, *puttest*.

(d) A few instances of the suffix *-st* after (written) consonants still remain, as *canst*, *dost* (as a notional verb more commonly *doest*).

(e) The suffix *-t*, as in Gothic strong preterites (see below), occurs in *shalt* (O.E. *scealt*), which was originally a preterite, and hence by analogy in *wilt* (O.E. *wilt*).

In the strong preterites Gothic and Old Norse have *-t*, in O.E. we find *-e¹* from an older *-i*, which occurs in Old

¹ It is omitted in the Northern dialects of the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries.

Saxon and Old High German and originally belongs to the subjunctive or rather optative mood. Gothic *nam-t* (thou tookst), Old High German *nām-î*, O.E. *nāme*; Gothic *halp-t* (thou helpedest), O.E. *hulp-e*. We have replaced this by *est*. (See § 300.)

In weak verbs the ending is *-st*; but we often find *s* in O.E. as *ðý bróhtes*, *þu sealdest*, &c.

(3) The suffix of the third person is in the present tense *-th* (Aryan *-ti*). This was afterwards supplanted by the northern *s*. We have two forms; *s* in common use, *th* archaic and still used in poetry.

The verbal suffix *s* is subject to the same euphonic changes as the plural *s* of substantives.

The original Aryan plural suffixes (1) *-mes*, (2) *-tes*, (3) *-n-ti* are in O.E. reduced to one for all three persons, which has disappeared in Modern English. (See § 297.)

Spenser and Shakespeare have a few examples of the plural *-en*,¹ as "they *marchen*" (Spenser, i. 4, 37). Cp.

"And then the whole quire hold their hips and laugh,
And *waxen* in their mirth."—*Midsummer Night's Dream*, ii. 1.

"For either they [women] be full of jealousy,
Or masterfull, or *loven* novelty."

BURTON'S *Anatomy of Mel.* p. 604.

It was archaic in Spenser's time, and is seldom used by Hawes or Sackville.

In O.E. when the pronoun followed the verb the inflexion was dropped, as *gá ge*, *ye go*.

¹ "In former times, till about the reign of Henry the Eighth, they (the persons of the plural) were wont to be formed by adding *-en*, but now, whatsoever the cause, it hath quite growne out of use."—BEN JONSON.

INFINITIVE MOOD.

306. (1) The infinitive is simply an abstract noun. In O.E. the sign of the infinitive was the suffix *-an*, corresponding to Sanskrit nouns in *ana*, as *gam-ana-m*, from *gam*,¹ to go.

(2) In Sanskrit the dative and locative singular of similar abstract nouns (as *gam-an-āṭa*, dat. ; *gamanā*, loc., were used as infinitives. In Greek we have this suffix in *-έναι*, *-ναι* (λελοιπ-έναι, διδ-ναι).

(3) North of the Humber the *n* was dropped even in the O.E. period, so that in Middle English we find *-e* in northern dialects, *-en* in the south, as *breke* and *breken* = to break. But this rule is not rigorously observed.

In Wicliffe the suffix is for the most part *e* ; in Chaucer and *Piers Plowman* we find *-en* and *-e*. When this *e* became silent the infinitive was only distinguished by the preposition *to*,² which is not found before the simple infinitive until about the end of the twelfth century.

"No devel shall *gow dere*."—*Pass.* vii. l. 34.

"Shall no devel at his ded-day *deren* hym a myȝte."—*Ib.* vii. l. 50.

"To *bakkite* and to *hosten* and *bere* fals witnesse."—*Piers Plowman*, B. ii. 80.

Spenser and Shakespeare have an archaic use of it, as "*to killen*" (Pericles).

"Henceforth his ghost . . .

In peace may *passen* over Lethe lake."—*F. Q.* i. iii. 36.

In Hall's Satires we find "*to delven low*," p. 51.

(4) The infinitive had a dative form expressed by the suffix *e*,³ and governed by the preposition *to*.

¹ In *gam-ana-m* the *m* is merely a neuter suffix.

² Cp. *for to* ; the *for* is, of course, pleonastic, but, no doubt, was used to distinguish it from the simple infin. with *to* before it.

³ The *n* is always doubled before the addition of this *e* in the oldest English. In later times *-enne*, *-anne* became *-ene*, then *-en* or *-e*.

We have traces of *-ene* as late as the middle of the fourteenth century.

This is sometimes called the *gerundial* infinitive: it is also equivalent to Lat. *supines*; as, *etanne*, to eat; *faranne*, to fare, go.

(5) In the twelfth century we find this ending *-enne* (*-anne*), confounded with the participial ending *-ende* (*inde*),¹ as:—

“The synfulle [man fasteth] *for to clenzen* him, the rihtwise for to *witiende* his rihtwisnesse.”—*O.E. Hom.* Second Series, p. 57.

In the fourteenth century, we find “to *witinge*” = to wit; “to *seethinge*” = to be sodden (*WICKLIFFE, Text A.*),² the participle *-ende* (*-inde*) having taken also the form *-inge*. Cp. “This nyzte that is to *comyng*,” (*Tale of Beryn*, l. 347).

In the fifteenth and following centuries these forms dropt out of use.

(6) The extract given above shows that the dative infinitive assumed the form of the simple infinitive as early as the twelfth century.

In the *Ormulum* there is only one suffix *-en* for both infinitives.

We find a trace of this dative infinitive in Sackville—

“The soil, that erst so seemly was *to seen*,
Was all despoiled of her beauty's hue.”—*Induction*.

“And with a sigh, he ceased
To tellen forth the treachery and the trains.”—*Duke of Buckingham*.

307. Because the suffix *-ing* represents (1) *-ung* in verbal substantives, as *showing* (O.E. *scēawung*); (2) *-ende* or *-inde* in present participles, as “he is *coming*,” “he was *coming*” (O.E. *he is cumende*, *he wæs cumende*), and sometimes represented the dative infinitive *-enne* (rarely the simple

¹ So in early Middle English occasionally.

² Cp. “And the dragoun stood before the womman that was to *beringe* child. And she childede a sone male, that was to *reulinge* alle folkes.”—*WICKLIFFE*.

infinitive *-en*); English grammarians have of late years put forth a theory concerning the infinitive, which is neither supported by O.E. usage nor is in accordance with the general direction of changes that have taken place in regard to these suffixes.

(1) It is said that the infinitive in *-en* has become *-ing* in such phrases as, "*seeing is believing*"¹ = to see is to believe. We know, however, (a) that the suffix *-en* disappeared in the sixteenth and following centuries, and (b) that it rarely in O.E. writers became *-inge* or *-ing*.²

It is quite evident that although, in sense, *seeing* and *believing* are equivalent to infinitives, they are not so in form, but merely represent old English substantives in *-ung*.

Cp. "The *giving* a bookseller his price for his book has this advantage."—SELDEN'S *Table Talk*. "Quoting of authors is most for matter of fact."—*Ib.*

Such a phrase as "it is hard *to heal* an old sore" may be converted into "it is *hard healing* an old sore;" but tracing phrases of this kind only as far back as the sixteenth century, we find that a preposition has disappeared after the verbal substantive, as :—

"It is yll *healyng* of an olde sore" (HAYWOOD'S *Proverbs*).

"It is evill *waking* of a sleeping hog" (*Ib.*).

¹ Mr. Abbott quotes "*Returning* were as tedious as (to) go o'er."—*Prov.* iii. 4. This form is also used as object :—

"If all fear'd *drivning* that spy waves ashore,
Gold would grow rich, and all the merchants poor."

TOURNEUR, *The Revenger's Tragedy*.

² In the *Romance of Partenay*, written about the beginning of the sixteenth century, or the latter part of the fifteenth, we find instances of infinitives in *-ing* for *-en* after an auxiliary verb (which we never get in modern English), but we can draw no conclusions from the exceptional usage of so late a work :—

"Our lord^e will receyve hym of hys grace,
And off all hys syn *yeuynge* hym pardon."—(l. 1528).

"And [they] shall
Enlesing [= lesen] the Rewme and also the land."—(l. 5625).

(2) It is asserted that the O.E. infinitive in *-enne* actually exists under the form *-ing* in such expressions as “fit *for teaching*,” “fond of *learning*,” &c.

In these cases we have merely the verbal nouns governed by a preposition doing duty for the old dative infinitive, and altogether replacing it.

We have seen, too, that the old infinitive in *-ing*, as *to writinge*, &c. died out about the end of the fourteenth or the beginning of the fifteenth century.

(3) These forms in *-ing* are no doubt very perplexing, and we find even Max Müller thrown off his guard by them. He says, “The vulgar or dialectic expression ‘*he is a going*’ is far more correct than ‘*he is going*.’” If so, “*he was a going*,” &c. must be more correct than “*he was going*,” but on turning to similar expressions in O.E. writers we find “*he is gangende*” and “*he was gangende*” used to translate Latin present and imperfect tenses; but never “*he is on gangung*,” *he is a going*.¹ Compare:—

“*þe þyef is comynde*.”—*Azimuth*, p. 264.

“*þat Israelisshe folc was walkende*.”

O.E. II, Second Series, p. 51.

308. In O.E. writers after the Conquest we find the verbal noun with *on*, *an*, *in*,² *a*, employed (1) after verbs of motion, as “*he wente on hunting*,” “*he fell on sleeping*,” &c.

¹ In the dramatists of a much later period we find it, as—

“Your father is *a going*, good old man.”—SHIRLEY’S *Brothers*.

The *a in* these expressions was used before verbal substantives beginning with a consonant, and is a shortened form of *an* which was used before vowels; *an* is merely a dialectical form of *on*. Cp. “Now off, now *an*.”—WYATT’S *Poems* (ed. Bell, p. 136). •

² The infinitive sometimes replaces it in Shakespeare, as—

“Eleven hours I spent *to write* it o’er.”—*Rich. III.* iii. 6.

Here, “*to write*” is equivalent to “*in writing*.”

(2) After the verbs *is*, *was*, to form present and imperfect tenses, with *passive* signification, as “*the churche was in byldynge*” (ROBT. OF BRUNNE’S *Chronicles*, i. cxcvii.), “*as this was a doyng*” (*Morte d’Arthur*, lib. II. c. viii.), “*he rode in huntynge*” (*Gest. Rom.*). Ben Jonson retains these expressions, and states that they have the force of gerunds.¹

Cp. “I saw great peeces of ordinance *makynge*.”

CORYAT’S *Crudities*.

“Women are angels, *wooyng* (=in wooing).”—*Tr. and Cr.* i. 2.

(3) The verbal substantive with *a* could be used after the verb *be* where no time was indicated, as “*he is long a rising*” = “*he is long in rising*.”

(In earlier English we could substitute an abstract noun with a different suffix, as “*he wente forth an hunteth*”² = *he went forth on hunting*, or *a hunting*.)

About the beginning of the eighteenth century we find the *a* frequently omitted, and it is now only allowed as a colloquialism. *

(4) After verbs of motion the verbal subst. is not only preceded by *on*, *an*, *a*, but by *to*³ and *of*.

“If two fall *to scuffling*, one tears the other’s band.”—SELDEN’S *Table Talk*.

“A dog had been at market to buy a shoullder of mutton; coming home he met two dogs by the way that quarrell’d with him; he laid down his shoullder of mutton, and fell *to fighting* (= *a fighting*) with one of them; in the meantime the other dog fell *to eating* (*an eating*) his mutton; he, seeing that, left the dog he was fighting with, and fell upon him that was eating; then the other dog fell *to eat*³ (= *an eating*); when he perceived there was no remedy, but which of them soever he

¹ See Marsh’s *Lectures on the English Language* (ed. Smith), pp. 462, 472. In all the instances quoted by Marsh, the subject of the sentence preceding the verbal noun represents an inanimate object.

² Old and New Test. in Vernon MS.

³ Nash (*Peter Penniless*) has “*fall a retayling*.” In Gammer Gurton’s *Necule* we have “Hodge fell *of swearing*.”

fought withal, his mutton was in danger; he thought he would have as much of it as he could, and, therefore, gave over fighting, and fell to eating himself."—*Ib.*

(5) We usually abridge sentences containing the verbal substantive, so that it looks like a gerund, as "*For the repealing of my banished brother*"¹ can now be expressed by "*For repealing my banished brother.*"

Cp. "*Up peyn of losing of a finger*" = upon pain of losing a finger.—CAPGRAVE'S *Chron.* p. 195.

PRESENT (OR ACTIVE) PARTICIPLE.

309. The present participle is formed by the suffix **-ing**, which has replaced the O.E. *-ende* (*end*); *-inde*, *-ande* (*and*),² as O.E. *gá-nd*, *dó-nd* = going, doing; Middle English *comende*, *wepinde*, *rydande*, &c.

The suffix **-ing** arises out of **-inde**, and took place first in the Southern dialect during the twelfth century, though the older form did not die out until after 1340.

Lazamon has "*goinde ne ridinge.*"

The Northern dialects carefully distinguished (as did the Lowland Scotch dialect up to a very late period) the participle in **-and** from the noun in **-ing** (O.E. *-ung*):

"Than es our birthe here *bygynnyng*
Of the dede that es our *endyng*;
For ay the mare that we wax alde
The mare our lif may be dede talde.
Tharfor whylles we er here *lyffand*.

Ilk day er we thos *dyhand*."—HAMPOLE, *P. of C.* p. 58.

¹ Quoted by Mr. Abbott, from *Jul. Cesar*, iii. 1, who says that the expressions common in O.E. began to be regarded as colloquial in Shakespeare's time. Cp. Touchstone's words in *As You Like It*, ii. 4:

"I remember *the kissing of her battes*,
... and *the wooing of a peas-cod* instead of her."

² In Middle E. of the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries *-inde* is found only in the South, and *-end* in the Midland, and *-and* in the Northumbrian dialects (and in dialects influenced by the Northumbrian). In the oldest periods of the language *-ande* is W. Saxon, *-and* Northumbrian.

Ben Jonson's *Sad Shepherd* contains some passages written in imitation of the Northern dialect, and in it he makes use of the participle in *and*. "Twa *trilland* brooks" (act ii. 2), "a *stinkand* brock," "*pleasand* things," "while I sat *whyrland* of my brazen spindle," "*barkand* parish tykes," &c.—*Ib.*

Chaucer rarely uses the participle in *and*; he has several instances of Norman-French participles, as *suffisant*, *consentant*, &c.

Spenser has *glitterand*, *trenchand*, but his use of them is archaic.

For Passive Participles, see p. 227, § 279, p. 249, § 293.

ANOMALOUS VERBS.

310. **Be.**—The conjugation of this verb contains three distinct roots—(1) *es*, (2) *hēu* (Latin *fu*) (3) *was*.

		1	2	3		1	2	3
Present Indicative	Sing.	am	art	is	Pl.	are		
Subjunctive	Sing.	be	be	be	Pl.	be		
Past Indicative	Sing.	was	wast (wert)	was	Pl.	were		
Subjunctive	Sing.	were	were	were	Pl.	were		
Infinitive. be	Imperative. be	Pres. Part. being	Passive Part. been					
Pres. Indic.	Sing.	Goth. 1 i-m 2 i-s 3 is-t	O. E. eo-m eam ear-t is	béo-m, béo				
	Pl.	1 sij-u-m	ar-on	béo-ð, sind, syndon, (M. E. sinden, sunden)				
		2 sij-u-th	M. E. arn ar-on	béo-ð, sind (syndon)				
		3 si-nd	M. E. arn ar-on M. E. arn	béoð, sind (syndon)				

			Goth.		O.E.
Pres. Subj.	Sing.	1	si-ja-u	si	béo
		2	sij-a- ^{ts}	sí	béo
		3	si-ai	sí	béo
	Pl.	1	sij-ai-ma	si-n	béo-n
		2	sij-ai-þ	si-n	béo-n
		3	sij-ai-na	sín	béo-n
Past Indic.	Sing.	1	was	wás	
		2	was-t	wár-e	
		3	was	wás	
	Pl.	1	wês-um	wâr-on	
		2	wês-uth	wâr-on	
		3	wês-un	wâr-on	
Past Subj.	Sing.	1	wês-ja-u	wár-e	
		2	wês-ei-s	wâr-e	
		3	wês-i	wâr-e	
	Pl.	1	wês-ei-ma	wâr-e-n	
		2	wês-ei-þ	wâr-e-n	
		3	wês-ei-na	wâr-e-n	
Imperative	Sing.	2		wes	béo, seo, si
	Pl.	2	wis-i-þ	wesap	béoð
Infinitive		wis-a-n	wesan	béon
Pres. Part.		wisands	wesende	
Past Part.		wisans	gewesen	(M. E. yben)

311. **Am** = O.E. *eam* = *com*.

Ar-t = O.E. *cart*, cognate with Lithuanian *grà*, 'is.'

Is.—The root *es* is here weakened to *is*, and the suffix *th* or *t* is dropped (cp. Goth *is-t*).

Are represents the old northern English¹ *aron*,¹ *arv*, *er*.

The O.E. *s-ind* = Sansk. *santi* (= *as-santi*); *síndon* is a double plural, *sunden* occurs as late as 1250: *sinden* is in the *Ormulum*.

The root **be** was conjugated in the present tense, singular and plural, indicative, as late as Milton's time.

¹ *Ar-on* is not found in the old English West-Saxon dialect.

I be.		We be, Middle E., <i>ben</i> .
Thou beest.		Ye be, " "
Middle E. (He beth or bes.)		They be, " "

The first person is found in the English Bible.
Compare :—

"If thou *beest* Stephano, touch me."—*Tempest*, ii. 2.

"If thou *beest* he."—MILTON, *Paradise Lost*, i. 84.

The third person *beth* and *bes* were in use in the fourteenth century; the latter with a future signification.

The pl. is very common, as :—

"We *be* twelve brethren."—*Gen.* xlii. 32.

"There *be* more maryels yet."—BYRON, *Childe Harold*.

"As fresh as *bin* the flowers in May."—PEELE.

Bin = *be* with *n* as plural suffix.

In the present subjunctive, only the root *be* is employed, and all the inflexions are lost.

312. **Was.**—The O.E. *wesan*, to be, is cognate with Goth. *wisan*; O.N. *vera*, to be, abide; Sansk. *vas*, to dwell.

Was-t.—We have seen that all strong verbs in the oldest English had the suffix *e* for the second person singular of the preterite. In the Gothic *was-t* we have an older suffix, *t* (suffix of second person, as in *ar-t*), nearly lost in O.E.

But *wast* is not found in the oldest English; it is quite a late form, not older than the fourteenth century.¹ The O.E. form was *wære* (with change of *s* into *r*),² from which we have formed, after the analogy of *shall* and *will*, *wer-t*,³ which is sometimes, but wrongly, used for the subjunctive

¹ It occurs in Wicliffe (*Mark* xiv. 67).

² "Litel thou *were* tempted, or litel thou *were* stired."—*Pilgrimage*,

p. 33.

³ The O. Norse = *var-t*.

were (second person singular), as "thou *wert* grim" (*King John*, ii. 3).

• **Were** = O.E. *wæron*, where *r* is for original *s*.

313. In Middle E. we have negative forms, as *nam*, I am not; *nart*, thou art not; *nis*, he is not; *nere*, were not, &c.

Worth = O.E. *weorþan*, Latin *verti* = to become, to be.

"Wo *worth* the day" = "wo be the day."—*Ezek.* xxx. 2.

"Wo *worth* the faire gemme vertuelesse!

Wo *worth* that herb also that doth no boote!

Wo *worth* that beaute that is routheles!

Wo *worth* that wyght that tret ech under foote."

CHAUCER, *Tröylus and Cryseyde*, ii. ll. 344-7.

314. Many verbs in Teutonic and other languages, having lost their present tense, express the meaning of the lost tense by means of the preterite, as Lat. *odi*, *cepi*, *memini*, Gr. *oïda*. Compare Mod. E. "*I have got*" = *I have*. The verbs *can*, *dare*, *shall*, *may*, *owe*, *must*, and *wit*, are of this class; hence in O.E. (and partly in Modern E.) their present tense is conjugated like the preterite of strong verbs, while they have formed new preterites according to the weak conjugation.

315. Can.

		1	2	3		1	2
Present Indicative	Sing.	can	canst	can	Pl.		can
Subjunctive ...	Sing.	—	—	—	Pl.		—
Past Indicative ...	Sing.	could	couldst	could	Pl.		could
Subjunctive ...	Sing.	—	—	—	Pl.		—

		Goth.		O.E.
Present Indicative	Sing.	1	kann	can, con
		2	kant	canst
		3	kann	can, con
	Pl.	-i	kunnum	cunnon

				Goth.	O. E.
Present Subjunctive	...	Sing.		kunjau	cunne
		Pl.		kunþeima	cunnon
Past Indicative	...	Sing.	1	kun-þa	cú-ðe
			2	kun-þes	cúðest
			3	kun-þa	cúðe
		Pl.	1	kun-þédum	cúðon
Past Subjunctive	..	Sing.		kunþédjau	cúðe
		Pl.		kun-þéðeima	cúðon
Past Participle	...			kunþs	cúð
Infinitive	...			kunnan	cunnan

Can (first and third persons).—No personal suffixes, as in the preterite of all verbs originally strong.

Can-st stands for *can-t*.

The plural inflexions (cp. O. E. *cunnon*, *cunnen*) have disappeared.

Could.—The Middle E. forms *couth*, *coude*, show that a non-radical *l* has crept in, probably from false analogy with *shall* and *will*.

Middle E. *Coude* = Goth. *cun-þa* (= *cun-da*), has the tense suffix *d* of weak verbs.

We have the old past participle of the verb in *un-couth* (O. E. *un-cūð* = unknown).

In Chaucer we find infinitive *conne*, to be able, as "I shal not *conne* answer." Shakespeare has, "to *con* thanks." "He shulde *can* us no thank." BERNER'S *Froissart*.

Con = learn, study (as *con* a lesson), makes past tense and passive participle *conned*.

Cunning = knowing, is really a present participle of *can* (con).

316. **Dare.**

Present Indicative	Sing. ¹ dare ² darest ³ dare(s)	Pl. ¹ dare ² dare ³
Subjunctive ...	Sing. dare' dare dare	Pl. dare
Past Indicative ∴	Sing. durst durst durst	Pl. durst
Subjunctive	Sing. durst durst durst	Pl. durst
Infinitive. dare	Imperative. dare	Pres. Part. daring
		Past Part. dared

		Goth.	O.E.
Present Indicative	Sing. 1 dars 2 dart 3 dars	dear (dar) ¹ dears (darst) dear (dar)	
	Pl. daurs-um	durron (durren, durre)	
Present Subjunctive	Sing. 1 —	"dure —	
Past Indicative ..	Sing. 1 daursta 2 daurstes 3 daursta	dors-te (durste) dors-test (durstest) dorste (durte)	
	Pl. 1 daurstēdum	dursten (dursten)	
Subjunctive ..	Sing. —	dorste (durste)	
	Pl. —	dursten (dursten, durste)	
Infinitive ..	daursan	durran (dore)	

Dare.—The root is *dars* (cp. Gr. *θαρρεῖν*, *θαρσύνειν*).

The third person **dare** (O.E. *dear*) is strictly correct, but is now used only when followed by an infinitive without *to*. Cp. :—

“A bard to sing of deeds he *dare* not imitate.”

WALTER SCOTT, *Waverley*.

In the *Pilgrimage of the Lyf of Man* we find p.p. *dorre* :—

“Whi art thou swich and swich that thou *darst* passe the lawe . . . whens cometh it thee and how hast thou *dorre* be so harde.”—P. 78.

Wickliffe has infinitive *dore* :—

“þe which þing þat I shulde *dore* dou me styride þe studie of Ohygen.”

Forms in parentheses are Middle English.

Dare makes a new preterite, *dared*, when it signifies to challenge, as "he *dared* me to do it."

The preterite *durst* is often used colloquially (like *ought*) in present sense (here representing the original subjunctive): "I *durst* not do it" = I should not dare to do it, I dare not do it.

317. Shall.

Present Indicative	Sing.	¹ shall	² shalt	³ shall	Pl.	¹ shall	² shall	³
Subjunctive	Sing.	—	—	—	Pl.	—	—	—
Past Indicative	Sing.	should	shouldst	should	Pl.	should	—	—
Subjunctive	Sing.	—	—	—	Pl.	—	—	—
		Oth.				O.E.		
Pres. Indic. Sing.	1	skal	sceal	scal ¹		schal		
	2	skal-t	scealt	scalt		schalt		
	3	skal	sceaġ	scal		schal		
	Pl.	1 skulum	scul-on	sculon		schulen		
Pres. Subj. Sing.		skuljau	scyle	scule		schule		
	Pl.	skuleima	scylen	sculen		schulen		
Past Indic. Sing.	1	skulda	sceolde	scolde		schulde		
	2	skuldes	sceoldest	scoldest		schuldest		
	3	skulda	sceolde	scolde		schulde		
	Pl.	skuldêdum	sceoldon	scolden		schulden		
Past Subj. Sing.		skuldêdjau	sceolde	scolde		schulde		
	Pl.	skuldêdeima	sceoldon	scolden		schulden		
Infinitive		skulan	sculan					
Past Part.		skulds						

Shall often occurs in Middle English in the sense of *owe*, as—

"Frend, as I am trewe knyght,
And by þat feiþ I *shal* to God and yow,
I hadde it nevere half so hote as now."

CHAUCER, *Tr. and Cr.* l. 1600.

"þis dette *scel* (owes) ech to oþren."—*Azenbite*, p. 145.

"Hú nicel *scel* ðú?" = How much *owest* thou?—*Luke* xvi. 5.

¹ The second column of 'O.E. contains later forms

318. **May.**

Present Indicative	Sing.	¹ I may	² mayst	³ may	Pl.	¹ may	²	³
Past Indicative	Sing.	might	mightst	might	Pl.	might		
			mightest					
		Goth.	O.E.	MiddleE.				
Pres. Indic.	Sing.	1 mag	mag	mæci		mow		
		2 mæg-t	meaht	miht		maist		
		3 mag	mæg	mæci		—		
	Pl.	1 magum	magon	magen		mughen		
						mawen		
						mowen		
Pres. Subj.	Sing.	1 magjau	mage (muge)	mæci		mughe		
						mowe		
	Pl.	1 mageima	magen (mugen)	mægen		mughen		
						mowe		
Past Indic.	Sing.	1 mahta	meahte	mihte		moughte		
	Pl.	1 mahtêdura	meahton	mihten		mighten		
Past Subj.	Sing.	1 mahtêdjau	meahte	mihte		mighte		
	Pl.	1 mahtêdeima	meahten	mihten		mighten		
Infinitive		magan	magan (mugan)	mowen		mowe		
Pres. Part.		—	mægende	mowend miſtand		mowing		

May (first person).—The *y* here represents an older *g*.

Might.—The second person singular, we see, had originally the suffix *t*, like *shalt*, *wilt*, &c.

“Amende þee while thou *myght*.”—*Piers Plowman*.

In the fourteenth century we find this suffix dropping off, as “No thing thou *may* take from us” (Maundeville, p. 29). Skelton, too, uses this uninflected form, as “thou *may* see thyself” (i. 145).

In Middle English fourteenth century we find inf. *mowe*, pres. part. *mowende*, *mowinge* (WICKLIFFE, *Jer.* xvi. 10), p.p. *might*, *mogt*:—

"Who shall *move* fize."—WICKLIFFE, *Apoc.* xiii. 4.

"This con I wot well, me not to have *mozt* remene."—*Job*, Prol. p. 671.

"If goodly had he *might*."—CHAUCER.

319. Owe.

Present Indicative	Sing.	1	owe	2	owest	3	oweth	Pl.	1	owe	2	3
Subjunctive	Sing.	—	—	—	—	—	—	Pl.	—	—	—	—
Past Indicative	Sing.	—	ought	—	boughtest	—	ought	Pl.	—	ought	—	—
Subjunctive	Sing.	—	—	—	—	—	—	Pl.	—	—	—	—
Infinitive.	owe	Present Participle.						Perfect				
		owing						—				

		Goth.	O.E.	Middle E.		
Pres. Indic.	Sing.	1 aih	áh	og	ow	
	2	aiht	áhht, áhst	agest	ouh	owest
	3	aih	áh	ouh	oweth	
	Pl.	1 aigum	ágan	agen	owen	
Past Indic.	Sing.	1 aihta	áhhte	ahte	owhte	
	Pl.	1 aihtédum	áhton	ahten	owhten	
Infinitive		aigan	ágan	ažen	ogen	owen
Pres. Part.			ágende			
Pass. Part.		aihts	ágen	aht	ought	owed

(1) **Owe** (Goth. *aiht*, O.E. *áh*, I. *have*) no longer exists in the sense of *have*, possess.

(2) **Owe** as an independent verb:—

Cp. *Howet dó ic þæt ic éce lif áge?* = what must I do that I may have eternal life?—*Mark* x. 17.

"And all þat iss, and beoþ,
He shap and *ah*."—*Orm.* 6777.

"God *ah* (= owes) the littell mede."—*Ib.*

"By the treuþe ich *ou* to þe."—ROBT. OF GLOUCESTER, 6524.

"He *owhte* to him 10,000 talentes."—WICKLIFFE, *Matt.* xviii. 24.

"ȝeld þat þou *owist*."—*Ib.* xviii. 28.

"You *ought* him a thousand pounds."—SHAKESPEARE.

"The knight, the which that castle *ought*."

SPENSER, *F. Queene*, VI. iii. 2.

(3) As an auxiliary, it first appears in *Lazamon's Brut*, "he *ah to don*" = he has to do, he must do.

"I *owe* for to be cristned."—WICKLIFFE, *Matt.* iii. 14.

"And gladder *oughte* his freend ben of his dep
Whan with honour up yolden in his brep."

CHAUCER, *Knights Tale*.

(4) It occurs impersonally with datives, as—

"Wel *ought* us werche."—CHAUCER.

(5) **Owe** as a weak verb, signifying to be in debt, is conjugated regularly; present (1) *owe*, (2) *owest*, (3) *owes* (*oweth*); past (1) *owed*, (2) *owedst*, (3) *owed*.

(6) **Ought**, properly a past tense subjunctive (= would owe), is now used as a present, to signify moral obligation.

(7) **Own**, to possess, has arisen out of the derivative O.E. verb *āg-nian*, to possess. Shakespeare uses *owe* for *own*.

320. Must.

	Sing.	1	2	3	Pl.	1	2
Present Indicative	Sing.	—	—	—	Pl.	—	—
Subjunctive	Sing.	—	—	—	Pl.	—	—
Past Indicative	Sing.	must	must	must	Pl.	must	must
Subjunctive	Sing.	—	—	—	Pl.	—	—
		Goth.		O. E.		Middle E.	
Present Indic.	Sing. 1	môt		mót		mote	
	2	môst		mós-t		mote	
	3	môt		mó-t		mote	
	Pl. 1	môtum		móton		moten	
Past Indic.	Sing. 1	môsta		móste		moste	
	Pl. 1	môstêdun		móston		mosten	

(1) The verb **wot** in Old English denoted permission, possibility, and obligation (= *may, can, &c.*).

Spenser uses the old verb *wote*, as—

“Fraelissa was as faire, as faire *wote* bee.”

(2) **Must** has now the force of a present as well as of a past tense, and denotes necessity and obligation. Chaucer uses *moste* as a present tense.

321. WIT.

Present Indicative	Sing.	1 wot	2 —	3 wot	Pl.	1 wot	2	3
Subjunctive	Sing.	—	—	—	Pl.	—	—	—
Past Indicative	Sing.	wist	—	wist	Pl.	wist	—	—
Subjunctive	Sing.	—	—	—	Pl.	—	—	—
Infinitive.	wit				Present Participle.	witting		
					Past Participle.	wist		
					Goth.	O. E.	Middle E.	
Present Indic.	Sing.	1 wait	2 waist	3 wait	wát	wást	wat	wost
	Pl.	1 witum	2	3	wáton	wáston	witen	wisten
Past Indic.	Sing.	wissa	wissédum		wiste	wiston	wuste	wusten
Infinitive		witan			witan			
Present Part.					witende			
Pass. Part.					witen		iwist, wist	

The original signification of Goth. *wait*, O. E. *wátt*, is “I have seen” (cp. Gr. *oída*), hence *I know*, from the root *wit* or *vid*, to see.

(1) Shakespeare has I wot, he wot, you wot, they wot.

(2) The old second person singular has given way to *wottest*; and *wotteth* or *wots* is sometimes found for *wot*.

(3) **Wist**, the true past tense of *wit*, occurs frequently in the English Bible; but Sackville used *wotted*, as—

“ I, which *wotted* best
His wretched drifts.”—*Duke of Buckingham*.

(4) **Unwist** = unknown, undiscovered :

“ Couldst thou hope, *unwist*, to leave my land ? ”
SURREY, *Æneid* iv.

(5) **Wotting** = O.E. *witende* (*witing*), occurs in the *Winter's Tale* (ed. Collier), iii. 2. Cp. *unwitting*, *unwittingly*.

(6) **To wit**, a gerundial infinitive, is used as an adverb = namely.

To *weet*, a causative of *wit* = to learn, as—

“ Then we in doubt to Phoebus' temple sent
Euripilus to *weet* the prophesy.”—SURREY, *Æneid* ii.

(7) *Must* and *wist* have an *s*, which is not found in the roots *mot* and *wit*.

The past tenses are formed by adding to the root *t*, as *mot-te*, *wit-te*; but, by a common law in the Teutonic dialects, the first *t* is changed to *s*: hence *mos-te*, *wis-tē*.

322. **Will**. This verb resembles those treated in §§ 314–321 in having no personal suffix in the third person sing. present indicative. But it differs from them in its history; the present indicative was originally not a preterite but a subjunctive. Hence the endings of the singular in O.E.; but the plural *willað* has the ordinary ending of the present indicative.

		1	2	3		1	2	3
Present Indicative	Sing.	will	wilt	will	Pl.	will		
Subjunctive	Sing.	—	—	—	Pl.	—		
Past Indicative	Sing.	would	wouldst	would	Pl.	would		
Subjunctive	Sing.	—	—	—	Pl.	—		

		O.E.		Middle E.
Pres. Indic.	Sing.	1 wile	wille	wolle, wole, wol
		2 wilt	wult	wolt
		3 wile	wille	wulle, wole, wol
	Pl.	1 willað	wulleth	wolleth, wolen, wilen ;
Pres. Subj.	Sing.	1 wille	wolle	wulle
Past Indic.	Sing.	1 wolde	wolde	
	Pl.	1 wolden	wolden	
Past Subj.	Sing.	wolde		
Infinitive		willan	wilen	wolen
Pres. Part.		willende		

(1) In **won't** we have a trace of the Middle English *wol* (*wole*).

(2) In Middle English we find infinitive *wolen*, as "he shall *wolen*" (Wickliffe, *Apoc.* xi, 6); p.p. *wold*—

And in þe same maner oure Lord Crist hap *wolde* and suffred."
CHAUCER, *Melibeus*, p. 159 (Wright).

(3) Negative forms occur in O.E., as *nille* = will not; *nolde* = would not; *willy nilly* = will ye, *nill ye*, *will he*, *nill he*. "Will you, *nill* you" (*Taming of the Shrew*, ii. 1).

"To *will* or *nill*."—BEN JONSON, *Catiline*.

Cp. Middle E. "For *wolny*, *nulni*, hi sul fle," &c.—
Early Eng. Poems, p. 12.

Wolny = *wolen hi*, will they; *nulni* = *nolen hi*, nill they.

(4) In O.E. we find two weak verbs, *willian* and *wilnian*, to desire; the former of these exists in *will* = to desire.

"And Venus in her message Hermes sped
To bloody Mars *to will* him not to rise."—SACKVILLE, *Induction*.

"For what wot I the after weal that fortune *will*s to me."
SURREY, *Faithful Lover*.

"Which mass he *willed* to be reared high.—*Ib.*, *Æneid*.

323. The verb **need**, though of the regular weak conjugation, sometimes in Modern English drops the final *s* of the third person sing. of the present indicative. This is due to the analogy of *can, dare, shall, will, &c.*, and only takes place when *to* is omitted before, a following infinitive, as 'He *need* not do it.'

324. Tenses formed by Composition.

(1) Tenses are formed, not only by suffixes added to the verbal root, but by using auxiliary verbs along with the participles or infinitive mood. This is called the analytical mode of expressing time. The perfect tense is denoted by *have* and *is*; the future by *shall* and *will*.

"The primary meaning of the word *have* is 'possession.' It is easy to see how 'I *have* my arms stretched out' might pass into 'I *have* stretched out my arms,' or how, in such phrases as 'he *has* put on his coat,' 'we *have* eaten our breakfast,' 'they *have* finished their work,' a declaration of possession of the object in the condition denoted by the participle should come to be accepted as sufficiently expressing the completed act of putting it into that condition; the present possessive, in fact, implies the past action, and if our use of *have* were limited to the cases in which such an implication was apparent, the expressions in which we used it would be phrases only. When, however, we extend the implication of past action to every variety of cases, as in 'I *have* discharged my servant,' 'he *has* lost his breakfast,' 'we *have* exposed their errors;' when there is no idea of possession for it to grow out of; or with neuter verbs, 'You *have* been in error,' 'he *has* come from London,' 'they *have* gone away;' where there is even no object for the *have* to govern; where condition and not action is expressed; and 'you *are* been,' 'he *is* come,' 'they *are* gone,' would be theoretically more correct (as they are alone proper in German):—then we have converted *have* from an independent part of speech into a fairly formative element."—WHITNEY.

(2) In Middle English writers of the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries *have* was weakened to *ha*, and in the sixteenth century we find it coalescing with the passive participle.

"The Jewes wolden *ha broken* his bones."

Legends of Holy Rood, p. 139, l. 237.

"Therefore ech man *ha* this *in* memorye."

LYDGATE, *Arund. MS.* fol. 376.

"I *ha* thereto plesaunce."—*Ib.* fol. 27.

"I knowlech to a *felid*."—WICKLIFFE, *Apol. for the Lollards*, p. 1.¹

"It shuld a *fallen* on a bassenet or a helme."—FROISSART, I. ch. ii. 25.

"Richard might . . . *asauced* hymself if he would a *fled* awaie."—*Life of Richard III.* in Hardyng, p. 547, reprint of 1812.²

(3) *Do* and *did* are used for forming emphatic tenses, as "I *do* love," "I *did* love."

This idiom did not make its appearance till about the thirteenth century, and did not come into general use before the fifteenth century.

"In vuele tyme . . . *reste* thou *dust* chese (in evil time didst thou choose rest)."—ROBERT OF GLOUCESTER, 8809.

In Middle English *do* = to make, cause, as—

"And if I *do* þat lak,
Doþ strepe me, and put me in a sak
And in þe next ryver *do* me drenche."

CHAUCER, *C. Tales*.

It was also used as at present, to save the repetition of the principal verb, as—

"I love y^{ou} more than you *do* me."

SHAKESPEARE, *King John*, iv. 1.

"He slep no mote þan *doþ* the nightingale."

CHAUCER.

(4) In Middle English *gan*, *can*, was used as a tense auxiliary = *did*.

But the details of this usage must be sought in the syntax of auxiliary verbs. (See *Historical Outlines of English Syntax*, §§ 352–354.)

¹ Quoted by Marsh.

² *Ibid.*

CHAPTER XV

ADVERBS

325. ADVERBS are mostly either abbreviations of words (or phrases, as *likewise* = *in like wise*) belonging to other parts of speech, or particular cases of nouns and pronouns.

They modify the meaning of verbs, adjectives, and adverbs, and may be classified according to their meaning into adverbs of—

(1) PLACE, answering to the question (a) WHERE? (b) WHITHER? (c) WHENCE? as (a) *here, there, anywhere, elsewhere, somewhere, nowhere, yonder, below, before, behind, within, without*; (b) *hither, thither, hitherwards, backwards*; (c) *hence, thence, from below, from above*.

(2) TIME, answering to the question WHEN? (a) PRESENT, as *now, to-day, at present, &c.*; (b) PAST, as *yesterday, lately, of yore*; (c) FUTURE, as *to-morrow, soon, by and by*; (d) DURATION OF TIME (how long), as *long time, still, ever, &c.*; (e) REPETITION (how often), as *again, once, seldom, oft, daily*; (f) RELATIVE TO SOME OTHER TIME (how soon), as *then, after, forthwith, first, last*.

(3) MANNER or QUALITY, as (a) *well, wisely, slowly, quickly*,—some of these are interrogative, demonstrative, or indefinite, as *how, so, thus, nohow, &c.*; (b) affirmation, as *yes, yea, truly, indeed, &c.*; (c) negation, as *not, nay*; (d) doubt, uncertainty, as *likely, perhaps*.

(4) MEASURE, QUANTITY, DEGREE, as *much, little, enough, half, much, scarce, far, very, exceedingly*.

(5) CAUSE, INSTRUMENTALITY, as *why, wherefore, whence*.

326. According to their origin, or form, adverbs are divided into the following classes :—

I. Substantive Adverbs.

I. With case-endings :

(1) GENITIVE SINGULAR, *need-s*, Middle E. *needes*, “he must *needs* (of necessity) die.”

In O. and M.E. we find the genitive used adverbially, as :—

“Fure, þe never ne aþeostrede, *winteres* ne *summeres*.”— *La3.* 2861.

“Heo wolden feden þone king, *daies* and *nights*.”— *Ib.* 3255.

“Ich not to hwan þu bredst þi broð
Lives ne *deapes* ne deþ hit god.”

Owl and Nightingale, l. 1634.

Cp. Middle E. *willes*, willingly ; *sopes*, of a truth ; his *þonkes* = of his own accord, &c.

The termination has disappeared in many of the older words, as *day and night, cummer and winter*. Cp. :—

“We shul be redy to stonde wip you, *lyfe and deþ*.”— *Gest. Rom.* p. 37.

The preposition *of* has taken the place of the genitive suffix, as *of necessity, of course, of force, of purpose, of right, of a truth, of a day*. We actually find in the sixteenth century “*of a late dayes*,” as well as “*of late days*.”

Sometimes we have *of* (or *in, at, a, on*) with the old genitive, as *anights, of mornings, a mornings, on Sundays, now-a-days* = Middle E. *now-on-dayes, in-a-doors*, &c.

There were some adverbs in O.E., ending in *-inga*, *-unga*, *-linga*, *-lunga*. A few of these exist under the form *-ling* or *-long*, as *head-long* (Middle E. *heedlinge*), *sideling*, *sidelong*, *dark-ling* (*darklong*), *flatling* and *flatlong*.

In the fourteenth century we find these with the genitive form, as *allynges* (wholly), *heedlynges*, *flatlynges*, *noselynges*.

The Scotch dialect has preserved the old suffix *-linges* under the form *lins*, as *darklins* (in the dark).

The word *grovelling* was originally an adverb; cp. Scotch *groflins*, Middle E. *grufflynges*, *groflinges*.

We find *-gates* = *-ways* in Middle E., as *thus-gate* = *thus-wise*, *allegates* = *always*.

(2) DATIVE AND INSTRUMENTAL, *evēr* (O.E. *ēfre*), *never* (O.E. *nēfre*), *whilom* (O.E. *hwil-um*), *limb-meal* (O.E. *lim-mēl-um*), *piece-meal*.

(3) ACCUSATIVE, *ay* (from O.N. *ei* = O.E. *ā*, Goth. *aiw* accusative of *aiws* age), *the while* (O.E. *pā hwīle*), *somewhile* (*sumehwīle*), *some deal* (*sumne dēl*), *alway* (O.E. *ealne weg*), *otherwise* (*ōðre wisan*); cp. *nowise*, *noway*, *sometime*.

In such phrases as "He went *home*," "They wandered *north* and *south*," "I saw him *yesterday*," "They cry *day* and *night* unto him," "Can ye aught tell?" the words *home*, *north*, *south*, *yesterday*, &c. are adverbial accusatives.

Many of the old accusatives now have a genitive form, as *otherway-s*, *always*, *longways*, *straightways*, *another-gates* (cp. Middle E. *algates* = *always*, *thusgates*, &c.), *sizeways*, *sometimes*, *otherwhiles*, *somewhiles*, *the whilst*. In the *Ayenbite* and in *Piers Plowman* we find *perhuile*, *perhuyl*, *perhuyls*.

II. PREPOSITIONAL: *a-way* (O.E. *on wæg*), *a-back* (O.E. *on-bæc*), *a-gain* (O.E. *on-géan*), *a-day* (*on-dæge*), *to-day* (O.E. *tō-dæge*), *to-night* (O.E. *tō-niht*), *a niht* (*on niht*), *to-morn*,

to-morrow (O.E. *tô-mergan*), Middle E. *to-yere* (this year), *to-eve* (yesterday evening), *to-whiles* = meanwhile, *adown* (O.E. *â-dûna* for *of-dûne*, from a hill).

Cp. *abed*, *afoot*, *asleep* (on *slêp*), *alive* (on *life*), *ahead*, *on head*, *on-brood*, *a-broach*, *ashore*, *arow*, *aloft*, *apart*, *among*, *across*, *aside*, *a height*, *an end*, *a-front*, *a-door*, *besides* (Middle E. *besides*, *besiden*), *of kin* (*akin*), *of kind* (*naturally*), *of purpose*, *because*, *by chance*, *perhaps*, *perchance*, *perforce*.

In Middle E. we find *asidis*, *on sidis hand* = aside, apart ; *by northc*, *by southe*, *by pecemeale*, *by cas* (by chance).

Other but more recent adverbial forms of this nature are — *by no means*, *by any means*, *beforehand*, *at hand*, *in front*, *at night*, *at times*, *at length*,¹ *at-gaze* (*agaze*), *by degrees*, *upstairs*, *indoors*, *in fact*, *in deed*.

The preposition is sometimes omitted, as “they went *back*” (= *aback*), “this stick was broke *cross*” (= *across*).

In most English grammars that I have seen *a* in *a-year*, *a-day* = yearly, daily, is treated as the indefinite article used distributively.

A reference to older writers at once shows that this treatment is wholly incorrect.

“*prywa on geare*” = thrice a year.”—*Exod.* xxiii. 17.

“An halpenny *on day*” = a halpenny a day.—*Boke of Curtasye*, l. 616.

In some few words of French origin we have substituted *a* or *on* for Fr. *en* or *a*, especially in older writers ; *around*, Middle E. *on rounde*, O.F. *en rond*. Cp. *a fine* and *in fine*, *a stray*, *on stray*, &c.

In Middle E. we find *in* for *a* before words of French origin, as—

¹ In Earle's *Cosmog.* (ed. Arber) we find “*at the length*, *at bedside*” (p. 24), *in summe* (p. 33).

"þet corn *a gerse*, the vines *in* flouring" = the corn in grass, the vine in flowering.—*Ayenbite*, p. 36.¹

In *a-feared*, *a-feard*, *an hungered*, *an hungry*, Middle E. *a fingered*, *a dread*, the prefix *a* is a corruption of the O.E. *of*, an intensitive prefix, sometimes equivalent to *for* in *forswear*. In Middle E. we find *a thirst*, *on thirst*, and *of thirst*.

A is also a weakened form of the preposition *of* or *o*. "A dozen *a* beer" (S. ROWLAND'S *Diogenes*), "God *a* mercy" "man-*a*-war."²

In Middle English *ane* occurs for *an* (= *on*), probably from the analogy of *ine*, *inne*, O.E. *innan*, within.

"þin holy blod þet þou ssedest *ane* the roð."—*Ayenbite*, p. 1.

Cp. "Body *o* me," "two *a* clock," and "two *o* clock."

II. Adjectival Adverbs.

(1) In O.E. many adverbs are formed from adjectives by means of the suffix *-e*. Thus an adjective in *-lic* = like was converted into an adverb by this means, as *biterlic* (adjective), *biterlice* (adverb), *bitterly*.

The loss of the adverbial *e* reduced the adverb to the same form as the adjective: hence O.E. *fieste*, *faste*, became *fast*; *faire*, *fair*, &c.; *he smot him harde* = he smote him hard.

Cp. to work *hard*, to sleep *sound*, to speak *fair*.

In Elizabethan writers we find the adverbial *-ly* often omitted, as "*grievous* sick," "*miserable* poor."

(2) Many adjective forms, especially those of irregular comparison, as *well*, *much*, *little*, &c., are used as adverbs.

¹ Cp. "Innes *a* Courtmen" (Earle's *Cosmog.* ed. Arber, p. 41).

² The *a* = *an* has the same meaning as *on*; but *an* was used before consonants, *a* before vowels. Cp. *anon*, *anende*.

(3) GENITIVE FORMS, as *else* (O.E. *elles*), *backwards*, *forwards*, *upwards*, *eftsoons*, *uncethes*, *unawares*.

(4) ACCUSATIVE, *ere* (O.E. *ær*), *enough* (O.E. *geþók*), *backward*, *homeward*.

(5) DATIVE, *seldom*: cp. O.E. *miclum*, greatly; *lytlum* and *lytlum* = paulatim.¹

"Lere him *litlum* and *lytlum*."—*Piers Plowman*, B. p. 286.

"Hé gewýt swá *lytlum* and *lytlum* fram Gode" (so little by little he departs from God).—Aelfric, *Grammar*, Preface.

In later times the inflexion dropped, and we often find the prepositional construction instead, as *by little and little*. Cp. :—

"So did the waxen image (lo) *by smale and smale* decrease."

DRANT'S *Horace*, Sat. ii. 2.

"They love the mullet greate;
And yet do mynce her *smale and smale*."—*Ib.*

"My rentes come to me *thicke and thicke*."—*Ib.* ii. 3.

(6) FORMS with suffix *-a*: *yore*, (O.E. *gæara*), *yet* (O.E. *geta*), *soon* (O.E. *sóna*).

(7) PREPOSITIONAL FORMS, *amidst*² (O.E. *on-middum*, Middle E. *amidde*, *a-middes*), *towards* (O.E. *tó-weardes*), *together* (O.E. *tó-gæder*), *afar*, *anew*, *alate*, *aright*, *abroad*, *afar*, *aloud*, *along*, *agood*, *a-cold*, *alast*, *anon*, *at large*, *a-high*, *on high*, *in vain* (O.E. *æn idel*), *in general*, *in short*,³ *at the full*, *to, right*, *on a sudden*, *at unawares* (*at unaware* occurs in DRANT'S *Horace*), *at all* (O.E. *ealles*), *withal*, *of yore*, *of new*, *of late*, *of right* [Middle E. *of fresh*, *of neere*, *in open* (= openly), *in playne* (= plainly)].

¹ Sometimes in Middle E. we find *-en* for *-um*, as *whilen*, *selden*.

² The *t* in such words as *amw'st*, *amongst*, is merely euphonic: cp. the vulgar forms *alongst* (= along), *onest* (= once).

³ *In few* also occurs in Elizabethan literature: cp. *in brief*, &c.

Prepositions sometimes accompany the comparative and superlative, as *for the worse*, &c. ; *at last*, Middle E. *atte laste* = at the last ; *atte wýrst*, *at the worst*, &c. : cp. Middle E. *atte beste*, at the best ; *at least*, &c.

III. Numeral Adverbs.

Once, O.E. *éne*, Middle E. *ene*, *anes*, *enes*, *ans* ; **Twice**, O.E. *twi-wa*, Middle E. *twiwe*, *twien*, *twie*, *twies*, *twis* ; **Thrice**, O.E. *ðri-wa*, Middle E. *þriwe*, *þrie*, *thries*, *thrys*.

The -*ce* = -*s* = -*es*. In *betwixt* (= O.E. *betweenhs*) the last letter is not radical : cp. *amidst*.

An on (= *in one instant*), *at one*, *æt once*, *atwain*, *atwo*, *in twain*, Middle E. *a twinne*, *a thre*, &c. *for the nonce*.¹

IV. Adverbs formed from Particles.

A.—PREPOSITIONAL ADVERBS.

(1) **Aft** (O.E. *æft*, *eft*), *after* (O.E. *æf-ter*), *afterwards* &c. ; *abaft* = *a* + *be* + *aft* (O.E. *be-æftan*).

(2) **By** (O.E. *(bi, big)*, *for-by*, *by* and *by*).

(3) **For**, as in *be-fore* (O.E. *be-foran*), *for-th*, *forthwith*, *afore*, *aforehand*, *beforehand*.

(4) **Hind**, as in *behind* (O.E. *behindan*), *behindhand* ; O.E. *hindan*, *hindweard*.

(5) **In**, as in *within* [O.E. *innan*, *binnan* (= *be-innan*) *withannan*, *withinnen*], Middle E. *inwip*.

¹ Cp. Middle E. *for thyn anes* or *for than anes*, where the *n* originally belonged to the demonstrative ; cp. the oldest English *for ðem anum*.

(6) **Neath**, as in *be-neath, underneath* (O.E. *neoðan, be-nyðan, underneoðan, niðor, niðer*, down).

(7) **On**, *onward*.

(8) **Of** (O.E. *of* = from, *off*), **off**.

(9) **To**, **too**.

(10) **Through** (O.E. *ðurh* ; later forms, *thurf, thurch, thuruh, thorgh*), *thorough, thoroughly, thoroughly*.

(11) **Under**, *underfoot, underhand*.

(12) **Up**, *upper, uppermost, upward*.

(13) From the old form **ufan** (**ufon**) we get **above** (= O.E. *ā-bufan, abuten*), **oyer** (= O.E. *ofer*) ; cp. O.E. *be-ufan, bufan, wiðufan, onufan* = above ; *ufanweard*. upwards ; *ufanun*, from above.¹

(14) **Out**, *about* (O.E. *ūt, ūte, ūtan, h-ūtan, ymb-ūtan*), *without* (Middle E. *wiþutan, wiþouten*), *abouts, thereabouts*.

In Middle E. we have *inwiþ, outwiþ*.

¹ Later forms are *buvon, overan, bibufen*.

B.—PRONOMINAL ADVERBS.

Table of Adverbs connected with the Stems he, the, who.

PRONOMINAL STEMS.	PLACE WHERE.	MOTION TO.	MOTION FROM.	TIME WHEN	MANNER.	CAUSE.
who	where	whither	whence	when	how	why
the	there	thither	thence	then	thus	the
he	here	hither	hence	—	—	—

(1) Adverbs connected with the demonstrative **the** :—

There (O.E. *ðær*, *ðær*), originally *locative*.

Thither (O.E. *ðider*) contains the locative suffix *-ther*, corresponding to O.N. *þápra*, Sansk. *ta-tra*; *thitherward* (O.E. *ðiderweard*, *ðiderweardes*). For Mod. E. *th* instead of Old E. *d* see p. 101.

Then (O.E. *ðanne*, *ðonne*, *ðenne*), accusative singular.¹ It is the same word as the conjunction *than*.

We find in O.E. *ðá*, Middle E. *þo* = then, thence; *nú ðá*, Middle E. *nouthe* = now then.

Thence (O.E. *ðan-an*, *ðan-on*, *ðonon*, *ðananne*; later forms, *thanene*, *thannene*, *thenne-s*, *then-s*) has two suffixes: (1) *n*, originally perhaps the locative of the demonstrative stem *na-* (existing in adjectives in *-en*, and in passive participles); and (2) the genitive *-ce* = *-es*, which came in about the thirteenth century.

¹ Cp. Latin *tu-m*, *tun-e*, *ta-m*, *tandem*, *ta-men*, *tantus*, *tot*, &c., all containing the demonstrative stem *ta*, cognate with English *the*.

In Middle English northern writers we find *thethen* = O.N. *þáþan* = thence; old Scotch writers have *thyne*.

In Latin we find suffix *-n* in *superne*, from above. In O.E. we have *east-an*, from the east; *west-an*, from the west, &c.; *hind-an*, from behind.

The (O.E. *ðe*) before comparatives is an adverb, and is the instrumental case of the definite article **the**: *the more*, O.E. *ði máre* = *eo magis*.

In Middle English we have *for-thi* or *for-thy* = therefore, as—

“*Forthy appease your grieve and heavey plight.*”

SPENSER, *F. Q.* II. I. 14.

Thus (O.E. *ðas*).

Lest = O.E. *ði læs* (or *ðe læs*) + *ðe* (indeclinable relative), which, by omission of *thy*, became weakened to *leoste*, *leste*.

(2) Adverbs connected with the demonstrative stem **he** (**hi**):—

Here (O.E. *hēr*).

Hither (O.E. *hider*). See remarks on *whither*.

Hence (O.E. *hinan*, *heqnan*, *heonlīne*, *heona*; later forms, *hennene*, *hēnne*, *hennes* *hens*).

In Middle English northern writers we find *heþen* = O.N. *þéþan*.

(3) Adverbs from the interrogative stem **who**:—

Where (O.E. *hwær*, *hwar*). See remarks on *there*.

Whither (O.E. *hwæ-der*, *hwider*), *witheward*. See remarks on *thither*.

When (O.E. *hwanan*, *hwaŋa*, *hwanon* ; later forms, *whenene*, *whenne*, *hwanne*, *whennes*, *whens*), *whence*.

.. In Middle English, northern writers we find *weþan* = O.N. *hveþan*. See remarks on *thence*.

How (O.E. *hū*), **why** (O.E. *hwī*), are instrumental cases of *who*.

In Middle English we have *for-why* = wherefore, because. In the English Bible the mark of interrogation is *wrongly* printed after it.

(4) From the reflexive stem **swo** :—

So (O.E. *sweð*).

Also and **as** are compounds of *so* with the adjective *all*.

(5) From the demonstrative stem **yo**, *yon*, *yond*, *yonder*, *beyond*. See Demonstrative Pronouns, § 195, p. 91.

(6) From the relative stem **yo** (in Sansk. *ya-s*, *yā*, *ya-t* = *qui*, *quæ*, *quod*) :—

Yea (O.E. *gea*, *gia* ; later forms, *yha*, *ya*, *ye* ; Goth. *ja*).

Ye-s (O.E. *ge-se* ; later forms, *jis*, *yhis*).

The suffix *s* (*-se*) in **yes** is perhaps the present subjunctive of the root *es*, to be ; O.E. *sí*, Ger. *sei* = let it be. In O.E. there was a negative *ne-se*.

Ye-t (O.E. *gyta*, *geta*, *gyt*) contains the same root.¹ The Latin *ja-m* contains a cognate stem.

¹ If (O.E. *gif*, *yif*) is by some philologists connected with Goth. *iba*, *ibai*, perhaps, *lest* ; which is probably the dative case of *iba* = doubt : cp. Icel. *ef*, doubt, if.

(7) From the demonstrative **sam** :—

Sam, together, used by Spenser = Middle English *saman*, *samen*; cp. O.E. *sam-od*, *sam-ad*; Goth. *sam-ap*, together; Gr. *συν*; Lat. *simul*.

(8) From **sun-dor** :—

Asunder (= O.E. *on sundron*, *on sundrum*) and *sun-der* (O.E. *sundor*, Goth. *sun-dro*, separately, apart).

(9) From the demonstrative and negative **n** :—

(a) **Now** (O.E. *nū*¹),—cp. Lat. *nu-n-c*, *num*, *nam*, Gr. *νῦν*; (b) **ne** = not, as in Chaucer; (c) **no** (O.E. *ná*); and (d) **nay**.

“His hors was good, but he *ne* was nought gay.”—Prol. l. 74.

In O.E. *ne* = neither, nor. Spenser uses it—

“*Ne* let him then admire,
But yield his sence to bee too blunt and bace.”—F. Q. ii. Intr. *ib*.

This particle enters into the following words :—**none**, **nought**, **nor**, **neither**, **never**.

(10) **Not** = **nought**. See § 249.

For *not*, *not a whit*, we sometimes find *not a jot*, *not a bit*; cp. Middle English *never a del*, *never a whit*.

The Latin *nihil* = not a bean. In vulgar language we hear such expressions as I *don't* care *a straw*, or *a button*, &c. So in Middle English writers we get “nought a *bene* (bean),” “not a *kers* (cress).”

Aye, sometimes used for *yes*, is of obscure origin; the earliest recorded spelling is “*I*,” like the pronoun, so that the word cannot be identified with *ay* = always (for the

¹ Cp. O.E. *nūðá*, Middle E. *nouthe* = now then.

etymology of which see p. 281). Can it be the pronoun itself, used as "so think I," the εγωγε of the Platonic dialogues? Cp. O.E., *nic*, 'no' (= *ne ic*, 'not I').

What = *why* is an adverb, as—

"What should I more now seek to say in this,
On one jot farther linger forth my tale?"

SACKVILLE, *Duke of Buckingham*.

"What need we any spur but our own cause?"—*Jul. Caesar*, ii. 1.

327. V. Compound Adverbs.

(1) *There, here, where*, are combined (*d*) with prepositions, as *therein, thereinto, thereabout, thereabouts, thereafter, thereat, thereon, thereof, thereout, thereunto, thereunder, thereupon, thereby, therefore, therefrom* (and Middle English *therefro*), *therewith, therewithal, thereto, thitherto; herein, hereinto, hereabout, hereafter, hereat, hercof, hereout, hereinto, hereupon, hereby, herewith, hertefore, hitherto; wherein, whereinto, whereabout, whereat, whereof, whereunto, whereupon, whereby, wherefore, wherewith, wherewithal, wherethrough*.

The pronominal adverbs have a relative force. We have seen that the Middle English indeclinable relative *the* and English *that* are followed by prepositions; hence *there, there, where*, are mostly followed by prepositions. We have a few compounds with prepositions preceding, as *from thence, from whence*.

The preposition is sometimes separated from the adverb, as "On Italice, *par* Rome nu on stondeþ" (La3. 107). Cp. quotations under *as*, § 208.

(b) With *so* and *soever*, as *wheresea, wheresoever, wherever, whithersoever, whencesoever, whereas*.

(c) With *else*, *some other*, *every*, *no*, *each*, *any*, as *elsewhere*, *somewhere*, *otherwhere*, *everywhere*, *nowhere*, *eachwhere* (Middle English *ay-where* = everywhere), *anywhere*.

(2) **How** is combined with *so*, as *howso*, *howsoever*.

(3) Other compounds have already been noticed, see § 326, pp. 281-286. To these may be added *erelong*, *ere-while*, *while-ere*, *ere-now*, *withal*, *after-all*, *forthwith*, *at random* = Fr. *à rādon*.

(4) Some elliptical expressions are used as adverbs, as *maybe*, *mayhap*, *howbeit*, *as it were*, *to wit*, *to be sure*.

CHAPTER XVI

• PREPOSITIONS •

328. PREPOSITIONS are so named because they were originally prefixed to the verb, in order to modify its meaning. They express (1) the relations of space, (2) other relations derived from those of space, and marked in some languages by case-endings.

I. Simple Prépositions. •

In (O.F. *in*) is connected with *on, an, a*. In Middle English, in modern dialects, and occasionally in poetry, *in* often becomes *i*. Compare O.N. *i*.

At (O.E. *æt*) corresponds to Lat. *ad*.

Of (O.E. *of*; Goth. *af*, from; Lat. *ab*, Gr. *ἀπό* Sansk. *apa*).

By, O.F. *bī*, cognate with Gr. *ἀμφί*, Lat. *ambi*.

NOTE.—“The single form *bī* of Old Teutonic was subsequently, under the influence of the stress, differentiated into the strong or accented *bī* (German *bei*), and the weak or stressless *bī*, later *be*. The strong form was used for the adverb, the accented prefix of nouns, and a stressed preposition; the weak form for the stressless prefix of verbs, and a

stressless preposition. The influence of levelling, however, tended at length to make *bi* (*by*) the separate form in all cases, and to leave *be-* as the weak prefix."—*New English Dictionary*, s. v. *by*.

For (O.E. *for*, Goth. *faúr*, O.N. *fyr*, *fyrir*); *a-fore* (O.E. *on-foran*).

From (O.E. *fram*, *from*; Middle English *fra*, *fro*; O.N. *frá*).

The same root is seen in **for-th**, *fur-ther*, *far*. Cp. Sansk. *pra*, Gr. *πρό*, Lat. *pro*.

On (O.E. *on*, O.Sax. *an*; O.Fris. *an*, *â*; O.N. *á*; Goth. *ana*), up-ON.

Up (O.E. *up*, Goth. *iup*; O.H.Ger. *ûf*).

Out (O.E. *út*, Goth., O.Sax. *ût*, O.N. *út*); derivatives are *utter*, *utmost*.

With (O.E. *with*, from, against). *With* in its modern meaning is of comparatively recent origin; we find in O.E. *mid*, with; Goth. *miþ*, Sansk. *mithas*, Gr. *μετά*.

Through (O.E. *ðurh*, O. Sax. *thurah*, Goth. *þairh*, Ger. *durch*).

Thorough is merely another form of *through*.

To (O.E. *tó*). It is often used in the sense of 'for,' as *to friend* = 'for friend' (Spenser), *to wife*, &c.

Too (adv.) is another form of the same word.

II. Compound and Derivative Prepositions.

(1) Comparatives:—

After (O.E. *æf-ter*), a comparative formed from *of*; cognate with Greek *ἀποτέρω*, Sansk. *apatârim*, see Comparison

of Adjectives. We have the same root in *aft*, *eft*, *abast*, &c.

Ere (O.E. *ær*), before, corresponds to the Gothic adv. *airis*, comparative of *air*, early.

Or, as in *or ever* = before, is another form of the same word.

Over (O.E. *ofer*) is a comparative connected with *up*, and with the compound *above* (O.E. *a-b-ufan*) ; cp. Sansk. *upari*, Gr. *ὑπέρ*, Lat. *super* ; O.E. *ufera*, higher.

Under (O.E. *un-der*, Goth. *un-dar*), cognate with Latin *infra*, Sansk. *adhas*, 'below.'

(2) Prepositions compounded with prepositions: *into* (Middle English *intill*), *upon*, *beneath*, *underneath*, *afar*, *before*, *behind*, *beyond*, *within*, *without*, *throughout* [Middle English *foreby*, *atfore*, *on-foran* (= *afore*), *tefore*].

But (= O.E. *bútan* = *be-útan*) is composed of *be* (= *by*) + *out*. In provincial English it signifies *without*.

Above = *a* (on) + *be* + *ove* (O.E. *búfan* = *be-ufan*). See *up* and *over*, p. 286.

About = *a* + *be* + *out* (O.E. *ábútan* = *a-be-útan*).

Among, **amongst** (O.E. *ge-mang*, *on gemong* ; later forms, *amonges*, *amang*).

Until and **unto** (which in Middle English had often the same sense) are not found in O.E., and are probably of Scandinavian origin ; compare O.N. *unn* until, where *unn* represents an older *unþ* cognate with O.E. *oð* until (from *and*).

(3) Prepositions formed from substantives :—

Again, against, over against (O.E. *on-géan, agean; to-gegnes*, against; later forms, *onza'nes, azenes, ayens*; cp. Ger. *ent-gegen*).

Other prepositions of this class are, *instead of, in behalf of, by dint of, by way of, for the sake of; abroad, abreast, atop, ahead, astrick, adown, across*.

(4) Adjective prepositions :—

Till (cp. O.N. *til*, to) seems to be a use of a substantive meaning 'goal' (sb. Ger. *ziel*), originally the neuter of the Teutonic adj. *til*, 'good.'

Till first makes its appearance as a preposition in the northern dialect. It occurs in the Durham Gospels (eleventh century).

In Middle E. we find *intil* = into.

To-ward, towards, (O.E. *tó-weard, tó-weardes*).

In earlier modern E. we find these elements separated. Cp.

"Thy thoughts which are *to us ward*."—*Psalm* xl. 5.

Other adverbs of this kind are *afterward, afterwards, upward, froward* = away from.

"Give ear to my suit, Lord; *fromward* hide not thy face."—*Paraphrase of Psalm* lv. by Earl of Surrey.

Along, alongst (O.E. *andlang, ondlang*, M.E. *endelong, endlonges, an long, on longe, alonges*, through, along).

It is often used for *lengthwise*, and is opposed to *dithwart* or *across*.

"þe dores were alle of ademauntz eterne
Iclenched *overþwart* and *endlong*."—CHAUCER, *Knights Tale*.

"Muche lond he him ȝef *an long* þare sea."—*Laȝ.* 138.

There is another **along** (O.E. *ge-lang*) altogether different from this, in the sense of 'on account (of).'

"All this is 'long of you."—*Coriol.* v. 4.

"All *along* of the accursed gold."—*Fortunes of Nigel*.

"On me is nought *alonge* thin yvel fare."

CHAUCER, *Tr. and Cr.* ii. l. 1000.

"Vor *oþc* is al mi lif *ilong*."—*O.E. Hom.*, First Series, p. 197.

Amid, amidst (O.E. *on-middan, on-middun*; later forms, *amidde, amiddes*; from the adjective *midd*, as in *middle, mid-most*).

In the midst is a compound like Middle E. *in the myddes of*; cp. O.E. *tō-middes* = amidst.

Other prepositions of this kind are, *around, a-slant, a-skaunt, be-low, be-twixt* (O.E. *betweoh-s, be-tweox*, from *twi*, two), *between* (O.E. *be-tweobnum, betwynan*), *atween, atwixt*.

An-ent is O.E. *on-efn, on-emy*, near, to-ward (later forms, *on-efen-t, anent, anentes, anens, anence*).

Athwärt, over-thwart, thwart (O.E. *ðwar, on ðweorh*; O.N. *þwert*).

Fast by (O.E. *on fast*, near); cp. *hard by*.

Since (O.E. *siððan*; Middle E. *siþpe, siþe, sin, sen*; *siþens, siþence, sinnes, sins*).

Early and dialectal *no but, not but* = only.

(5) Verbal prepositions :—

The following prepositions arise out of a participial construction : *notwithstanding, owing to, outtaken* (now replaced by *except*), &c.

"þer is non, *outtaken hem* (= *iis exceptis*)."—WICKLIFFE, *Mark* xii. 32.

329. III. Prepositions of Romanic Origin.

(1) *Uncompounded*:—*per, versus, quæ* (= Lat. *sine*).

(2) *Compounded*:—(a) Substantive—*across, viâ, because, apropos of, by means of, by reason of, by virtue of, in accordance with, in addition to, in case of, in comparison to, in compliance with, in consequence of, in defiance of, in spite of, in favour of, in front of, in lieu of, in opposition to, in the point of, in quest of, with regard to, in reply to, with reference to, in respect of, in search of, on account of, on the plea of, with a view to.*

(b) Adjective—*agreeably to, exclusive of, inclusive of, maugre, minus, previous to, relatively to, around, round, round about.*

(c) Verbal, (1) active:—*during, pending, according to, barring, bating, concerning, considering, excepting, facing, including, passing, regarding, respecting, aiding, tending, touching*; (2) passive:—*except, excepted, past, save.*

CHAPTER XVII

CONJUNCTIONS

330. CONJUNCTIONS join sentences and co-ordinate terms. According to meaning, they are divided into—

Co-ordinate, joining independent propositions : (a) *copulative*, as *and*, *also*, &c. ; (b) *disjunctive*, as *or*, *else*, &c. ; (c) *adversative*, as *but*, *yet*, &c. ; (d) *illative*, as *for*, *therefore*, *hence*.

Sub-ordinate, joining a dependent clause to a principal sentence : (a) those used in joining *substantive* clauses to the principal sentence, as *that*, *whether* ; (b) those introducing an *adverbial* clause, marking (1) time—*when*, *while*, *until* ; (2) reason, cause—*because*, *for*, *since* ; (3) condition—*if*, *unless*, *except* ; (4) purpose, end—*that*, *so*, *lest*.

331. According to their origin, conjunctions may be divided into—pronominal, numeral, adverbial, substantive, prepositional, verbal, compound.

(1) PRONOMINAL :—

And (O.Sax. *endi*, O.H.Ger. *anti*).

An = if is another form of *and* ; the combination *and if* became *an if*, shortened to *an*.

Eke = also (O.E. *ēac*), *hence*, *how*, *so*, *also*, *as*, *just as*, *as far as*, *in so far as*, *whereas*, *lest*, *then*, *than*,¹ *thence*, *no sooner than*, *though*,² *although*, *therefore*, *that*, *yea*, *nay*, *what* . . . and (Middle E. *what* . . . *what*), *whereupon*, *whence* *whether*, *either*, *neither*, *or*, *nor*.³

(2) **Numeral**:—*both*, *first*, *secondly*, &c.

(3) **Substantive**:—*sometimes* . . . *sometimes*, *while*, *in case*, *upon condition*, *in order that*, *otherwise*, *likewise* (= *in like wise*), *on the one hand* . . . *on the other hand*, *on the contrary*, *because*,⁴ *besides*, *on purpose that*, *at times*, *if* (see footnote on p. 200).

(4) **Adjective** (**Adverbial**):—*even*, *alike*, *accordingly*, *consequently*, *directly*, *finally*, *lastly*, *namely*, *partly* . . . *partly*, *only*, *furthermore*, *moreover*, *now* . . . *now*, *anon* . . . *anon*, *lest*, *unless* (Middle E. *onlesse*), &c.

(5) **Prepositional**:—

(a) Originally used before the demonstratives *that* or *this*:—*ere*, *after*, *before*, *but*, *for*, *in* (*that*), *since* (*sith*, *sithence*⁴), *till*, *until* *with* (*that*); (b) participial:—*notwithstanding*, *except*, *excepting*, *save*, *saving*, &c.

(6) **Verbal**:—*to wit* *videlicet* (*v.z.*), *say*, *suppose*, *considering*, *providing*.

(7) **Compound**s, being abbreviated forms of expression: *not only*, *nathless*, *nevertheless*, *nathemore* (Spenser), Middle E. *nathemo*, Middle E. *never the letter*, *that is*, *that is to say*,

¹ We occasionally find, as in Scotch, *or* and *nor* instead of *than*.

² O.E. *þeah*, Goth. *þau-h*, from the demonstrative stem *the*.

³ *Or* and *nor* are contractions of *other* (not the same as the modern word, but a form of *awther*, O.I. *áhwæþer*: see the pronoun *either*) and *neither*, *nawther*.

⁴ The O.E. *sip-þan* = *sip-þam*, after that.

may be, were it not, were it so, be it so, be so, how be it, albeit, Middle E. *al if*, &c.

So in Middle E., we have *warne*, *warn* = were it not, unless (cp. O.H.Ger. *nur* = *ni wâri* = were it not), equivalent to the O.E. *nêre ðæt*, were it not.

CHAPTER XVIII

INTERJECTIONS¹

332. INTERJECTIONS, having no grammatical connection with other words in a sentence, are not, strictly speaking, "parts of speech." They are either imitations of cries expressing a sudden outburst of feeling, as *oh*, *ah*, or are mere sound gestures, as *st*, *sh*.¹

Many words, phrases, and sentences have come to be used interjectionally, as *alas*, *zounds*, &c.

Interjections may express feelings of—

(1) **Pain, weariness**—*ih*, *oh*, *O* (O.Fr. *a*, *ha*, *ahi*, *O*, *oh*, *ohi*), *ay*. Middle E. interjections of pain are *a*, *ou*, *ow*.

Welaway, *welladay*, O.E. *wá*, *lá wá*; *lá* = *lo*, *wá* = *woe*, *wá*, *lá*, Scotch *ivaly*, Middle E. *awey* (alas).

Alas (O.F. *hailas*, *halas*), *alack*, *lackadaisy*, *alackaday*, *boohoo*, *out alas*, *O dear m.*, *heigh ho*, *heigh*, *heyday*, Middle E. *hig*.

(2) **Joy**—*hey*, *heigh* (Fr. *hé*), *hey-day*, *hurrah*, *huzza*, *hilliho*.

(3) **Surprise, &c.**—*eh* (Middle E. *ey*), *ha*, *ha*, *ha*, *what*, *why*, *how*, *lo*, *la*, *lawk*, *aha* (Lat. *ha*), *ho*, *hi*.

¹ "Voces quæ cujuscunque passionis animi pulsu per exclamationem interjiciuntur."—PRISCIAN, *Inst. Gram.* l. 15, c. 7.

(4) **Aversion, disgust, disapproval**—*fy, fie, foh, fugh, faugh, fudge, poh, pooh, pugh* (Fr. *pouah*), *baw, bah, pah*,¹ *pish, pshah, pshaw, tut, whew, ugh* (O.E. *wew*), *out, out on, hence, avaunt, droynt, begone, for shame, fiddle-faddle*.

(5) **Protestation**—indeed, *in faith, perdy, gad*,² *egad, ecod, ods, odd, odd's bob, odd's pettikins, udsfapt, ods bodkins, od zooks, zooks, odso, gadso, 'sdeath, 'slife, zounds, 'sbud, 'sblod, lord, marry, lady, bi'rlady, byrlakin, jingo, by jingo, deuce, dyce, devil, gemminy* (O *gemini*).

(6) **Calling and exclaiming**—*hilloa, hollo, ho, so ho, hoy, hey, hem, harow* (O. Fr. *haro*, a cry for help), *help, ho, bravo, well done, hark, look, see, oyes, mum, hist, whist, tut, tush, silence, peace, away, ho, shoo, shoohoo, whoa*.

(7) **Doubt, consideration**—*why, hum, hem* (Lat. *hem*), *humph, what*.

(8) Many interjections are 'what are called "imitative words," or *onomatopæias* :—

Sounds produced (a) by inanimate objects—*ding-dong, bim-bom, ting-tang, tick-tack, thwack, whack, twang, bang, whiz, thud, whop, slap, dash, splash, clank, puff*.

(b) by animate objects—*bow-wow, mew, caw, purr, croak, cock-a-doodle-do, cuckoo, tu-whit, to-whoo, tu-whu, weke-weke, ha ha*.³

¹ Selden uses *pah* as adj. : "It (child) all bedawbs it (coat) with its *pah* hands."—*Table Talk*.

Shakespeare has it as an interj. : "*Fie, fie, fie! pah! pah!* Give me an ounce of civet, good apothecary, to sweeten my imagination."—*Learn*, iv. 6.

² In *gad, egad, od*, the name of the Deity is profanely used. In the Middle Ages people swore by parts of Christ's *body*, by His sides, face, feet, bones; hair (cp. *sfacks*, God's hair), blood, wounds (*zounds, 'od's nouns* = God's wounds), life; also by the Virgin Mary (by the *mackins* = by the maiden), by the *mass*; also, by the pity and mercy of God, as "by *Goddess ore*;" "*Odd's pittikens*;" by God's sanctities (God's *sonties*).

³ Used to imitate the sound of a horse's neigh, as *Job xxxix. 25*. Luther uses *huf*.

CHAPTER XIX

DERIVATION AND WORD FORMATION

333. ROOTS, as we have seen, are either predicative, or demonstrative, and constitute the primary elements of words.

The root is the significative part of a word, as *gif-t* contains the root *gif*, to give, *be-long* the root *long*. Prefixes and suffixes serve to modify the root meaning, as the *-t* in *gift*, and the *be-* in *belong*. Many prefixes and suffixes were once independent words, which, by being added to principal roots to modify their meaning, gradually lost their independence, and became mere signs of relation, and were employed as *formative elements*. Cp. the origin of the adverbial suffix *-ly*, which originally signified *like*.

To get at the root of a word we must remove all the formative elements, and such changes of sound as have been produced by the addition of relational syllables.

A *theme* or *stem* is that modification that the root assumes before the terminations of declension and conjugation, or other qualifications are added, as *love-d*; *lov* (O.E. *luf*) is the root; *love* (C.E. *lufo-*) is the *theme* or *stem*; *-d* is the suffix of the past tense.

In English very many formative elements have been lost. Thus from the root *gif*=give the O.E. formed *gif-u*, a gift; *gif-an*, to give; *gif-ende*, giving, a gifer; *gift*; *gafō*, tribute; Gothic has *gab-ei*, gain, *riches*; *gabei-gs*, rich; *gab-ig-aba*, richly; *gib-a*, gift; *giban*, to give; *gib-and-s*, a giver, giving; *gab-ig-jan*, to enrich; *gab-ig-nan*, to be rich.

PREFIXES (OF TEUTONIC ORIGIN).

• 334. I.—Dead Prefixes.

A- has several meanings answering to several derivations.

(1) *A-* = O.E. *an, on*. *A-bed, a-board, a-shore, a-field, a-foot, a-back, a-head, a-sunder, a-part*; *now-a-days*; *a-blaze, a-float, a-live*.

(2) *A-* = O.E. *'of*. *A-fresh, a-kin, a-new*; *a-down, a-thirst*.

(3) *A-* = O.E. *and-, against*. *A-long*.

(4) *A-* = O.Norse *at* = to. *A-do* = French *affaire* (*à faire*).

(5) *A-* = O.E. *ge-*. *A-long* = owing to, *a-ware*, (O.E. *ge-wære*).

NOTE.—The *a* in *a-like* probably does not come from *ge-* in *ge-lic*, but from O. Norse *álíkr* = O.E. *onlic*.

(6) *A-* = O.E. *a*, originally *ar* (rarely preserved), Gothic *us-, ur-*, German *er-*, implying motion onward or away from a position, hence *away, on, up, out*, and thus with verbs of motion adding intensity; as in *a-bide, a-rise, a-wake*.

An- = O.E. *and* = German *ant-, ent-* in *an-swer* (O.E. *and-swaru*). Cf. *a-long*.

At- = O.E. *at* in *atone*, i.e. to set at one. *At* is no longer recognizable in *a-do* (see *A-*, 4), and in *at-wit* from O.E. *æt-witan*, to blame.

E- = O.E. *ge-* in *enough* (O.E. *genóh*, German *genug*).

For- = O.E. *for-*, German *ver-*. *For-bear, for-bid, for-fend, fore-go, for-get, for-give, for-sake, for-swear*.

Fro- = O.E. *from-*, O.N. *frá-*. *Fro-ward* (O.E. *from-weard*).

Gain-= O.E. *gegn-*, against. *Gain-say*, *gain-stand*.

Mid-= O.E. *mid* = with. *Mid-wife*.

N-= O.E. *ne*, the Teutonic negative prefix. *N-ought*, *n-either*, *'n-ever*, *willy*, *n-illy* (will he, nill he).

Or-= O.E. *or-*, Gothic and German *ur-*, in *or-deal* (O.E. *or-dél*, *or-dél*), German *ur-teil*, i.e. "that which is dealt out," a decision.

To-= O.E. *tó-*, German *zer-*.

"And a certain woman cast a piece of a millstone upon Abimelech's head, and all *to-brake* his scull."—*Judges* ix. 53. In Chaucer:—*to-breke*, to break in pieces, *to-beten*, to beat to pieces, *to-rende*, to tear to pieces.

To-= O.E. *tó* = German *zu*. *To-day*, *to-night*.

Un-= Teutonic *und* in *un-til*, *'un-to*. (See Prepositions, *unto*.)

With-= O.E. *wið* = against. *With-draw*, *with-hold*, *with-say*, *with-stand*.

Y-= O.E. *ge-* in past participles.

"Her sight did ravish, but her grace in speech,
Her words *y-clad* with wisdom's majesty,
Makes me from wondering fall to weeping joys."

Henry VI. i. i. 33.

"Now for the ground which; which, I mean, I walked upon: it is *y-cleped* thy park."—*Dove's Labour's Lost*, i. i. 242.

335. II.—Living Prefixes.

After-= O.E. *after-*. *After-growth*, *after-math*, *after-wards*.

All-= O.E. *eall-*. *Al-mighty*, *all-wise*. In Early English *al-* = quite is added (1) to past participles, as *al-brent* = quite burnt, *al-heled* = quite concealed; (2) to verbs preceded by

to, as *al-to-brenne* = to burn up entirely. In Elizabethan and later writers *all-to* = altogether, quite; the original meaning of *to* having been lost sight of.

All to topple (*Peticles*, 'iii. 2, 17) = topple altogether; *all to nought* (*Venus and Adonis*, 993); *all-to ruffled* (Milton).

Be- = O.E. *be-*, the most fertile of all English prefixes, is the weak form of *by*. The original meaning was 'about.'

(1) It forms derivative verbs, with the sense of 'around,' 'on all sides,' 'in all directions.' *Be-blear* = to blear all over; *begirdle*; *bejumble*; *bepaste*; *besmudge*.

(2) It forms intensive verbs, with the sense of 'thoroughly,' 'soundly.' *Bebreech* = to breech soundly; *bedaub*; *bewelcome*.

(3) It renders intransitive verbs transitive by adding a prepositional relation. *Bechatter* = to environ with chattering; *begaze* = to gaze at; *besmile* = to smile at; *bespeak*.

(4) It forms transitive verbs of adjectives and substantives. (a) *befoul* = to affect with foulness; *bedim* = to make dim; (b) *bedew* = to cover with dew; *befriend*.

Fore- = O.E. *fore-*.

(1) With verbs :—*fore-bode*, *fore-cast*, *fore-tell*.

(2) With past participles :—*fore-dated*, *fore-said*, *fore-told*.

(3) With substantives :—*fore-castle*, *fore-father*, *fore-sight*.

In- = O.E. *in-*.

In-come, *in-land*, *in-sight*

Mis- = O.E. *mis-*, Gothic *missa-*, German *miss-*.

(1) With substantives :—*mis-deed*, *mis-trust*.

(2) With verbs :—*mis-call*, *mis-behave*, *mis-take*.

Off- = O.E. *of*¹:—*of-fal*, *off-set*, *off-spring*.

¹ There is the same relation between *of* and *off* as between *be* and *by*; O.E. *of* has been differentiated into the stressless or weak form *of*, and the stressed or strong form *off*.

Thorough = O.E. *ðurh*, through :—*thorough-fare*.

Un = O.E. *on* (*un*-) German *ent*.

Un-bind, un-bosom, un-do, un-lock, un-wind.

Un = O.E. *un*- the Teutonic negative particle :—*uncouth, un-truc, un-truth.*

Under = O.E. *under*-

(1) With substantives :—*under-growth, under-wood.*

(2) With verbs :—*under-go, under-take, under-sell, under-prize.*

Up = O.E. *ūp* = Ger. *auf*

(1) With substantives :—*up-land, up-shot, up-start.*

(2) With adjectives :—*up-right, up-ward.*

(3) With verbs :—*up-bear, up-braid, up-hold, up-set.*

Out = O.E. *ūt* = Ger. *aus* :—

out-break, out-bud, out-cast, out-pour, out-side.

PREFIXES (OF ROMANIC ORIGIN).

336. I.—Dead Prefixes.

A-, ab-, as- (Latin) away from :—

Avert, abdicate, abjure, abscond, absent.

Abridge from French *abrégé*, Latin *ab-breviare*; *assail* from O. French *assoilier* = Latin *absolvere*.

Ad- (Latin) :—

Adapt, adore, adhere, adjoin, accept, accumulate, affirm, affix, affront, aggravate, alleviate, allege, appear, apply, arrive, assail, assent, assets, attain.

Through the medium of O.French came in :—

Achieve (French *achever*, formed from the phrase *à chief* [*venir*], late Latin *ad caput venire*, to come to a head, to bring to a head, to finish), *agree* (French *agréer*, looks as if

it were formed from a Latin word *ad-gratare*), *amerce* (to punish, to fine, from Anglo-French *amercier*, which was formed from *estre à merci*, to be at the mercy of any one, *être amercié*, to be fined at will), *amount* (O.Fr. *amunter*, à mont, L. *ad montem*), *acquit* (O.Fr. *acuiter*, as it were from a Latin word *ad-quietare*, to appease, to settle), *acquaint* (O.Fr. *acoïntier*, late Latin *ad-cognitare*), *avow* (Fr. *avouer*, L. *ad-votare*).

Ante- (O.French *ans*, *ains*, *eins*):—

Antecede, *ante-chamber*; — *ancestor* (O.Fr. *ancestre*, L. *antecessor*).

Amb-, am- (Latin), about:—

Amb-i-ent, *am-putate*.

Circum-, circu- (Latin), round about:—

Circumstance (through French *circonstance*), *circumscribe*, *circuit*.

De- (Latin, French *dé*); down, from, away:—

Decline, *descend*, *depart*.

It is negative and oppositive in *destroy*, *disquietude*, *deform*.

It is intensitive in *declare*, *desolate*, *desiccate*.

Ob- (Latin, becomes by assimilation *oc*, *of*, *op*), in front of, against:—

Obviate, *occur*, *offer*, *offend*, *oppugn*.

Through French came in:—

Obey (Fr. *obéir*, L. *obedire*), *obeisance* (its Latin doublet is *obedience*), *oblige*, *occasion*, *offence*, *office*, *oppose*.

Per- (Latin *per*, French *par*), through:—

Perfect, *persuade*, *peracute*.

Of French origin are:—*Perceive*, *perish*, *pierce*, *pursue*; *pertinence*, *appurtenance*.

Pro- (Latin, French *pro*, *por*, *pour*), forth, forward, before, instead :—

Proconsul, *progeny*.

Of French origin are :—

Proceed, *procure*, *progress*, *proress*; *purchase* (O.Fr. *pur-chacer*), *purpose* (a doublet of *propose*), *pursue* (Fr. *pour-suivre*), *purvey* (O.Fr. *purveir*).

Se-, sed- (Latin, Fr. *sé*), apart, away :—

Secede, *seclude*, *sedition*, *seduce*.

Subter-, under :—

Subterfuge, *subterhuman*.

Un-, uni-, one :—

Unanimous, *uniform*.

Male-, mal- (Latin *malē*, Fr. *mal*, *mau*), ill :—

Malcontent, *malediction*, *malevolent*; through French : *maugre* (notwithstanding).

337. II.—Living Prefixes.

Com-, con-, co- (Latin; O. Fr. *com*, *cum*, *con*, *cun*) :—

Command, *comprehend*, *collect*, *col-lingual*, *collocate*, *collate*.

Co-eval, *co-operate*.

Conduct, *confirm*, *conjure*, *consent*.

Through the medium of O.Fr. came in :—

Conceive (O.Fr. *concevoir*, L. *concipere*), *conquer* (O.Fr. *conquerre*, L. *conquirere*), *convey* (O.Fr. *conveier*, L. *conviaere*), *counsel*, *countenance*, *count* (*conter*, L. *computare*), *cost* (O.Fr. *coster*, L. *constare*), *couch* (O.Fr. *colcher*, *coucher*, L. *collocare*).

“ In Latin the preposition *com* was shortened to *cō* before vowels and *h*, also before *gn*, e.g. *coalescere*, *coercere*, *coortus*, *cohaerere*, *cognatus*. Partly from the greater syllabic distinctness of this form of the prefix, arising out of the natural break between it and the following vowel, whereby also, on

the break-down of the older quantitative system, the *o* became a long vowel, partly from the readiness with which some compounds of this type, as *co-aqualis*, *co-adjutor*, *co-episcopus*, *co-hæres*, were analysed into their elements, *co-has become in English to be a living formative*, the use of which is no longer restricted to words beginning with a vowel, but extended to all words of analogous kinds, including native English or other words, as well as those from Latin. The general sense is 'together,' 'in company,' 'in common,' 'joint-ly,' 'equal-ly,' 'reciprocally,' 'mutually.'—*New English Dictionary*. • •

Instances of English formation with *co* :—

(1) With verbs : *co-admire*, *co-attend*, *co-enjoy*, *co-love*, *co-raise*.

(2) With adjectives : *co-ardent*, *co-divine*, *co-pleased*.

(3) With substantives : *co-abode*, *co-life*, *co-actor*, *co-believer*, *co-rival*.

Contra, **contro**, **counter**- (Latin *contra*, Fr. *contre*), against :—

Contra-dict, *contro-vert* ;

Of French origin are : *counter-balance*, *counter-feit* ;

Of English formation : *counter-action*, *counter-bond*, *counter-cast*, *counter-current*, etc.

Dis, **di**- (Latin, O.Fr. *des*, Mod. Fr. *dis*, *dés*, *di*, *de* ; by assimilation *dif*), asunder, apart, in two ; difference, negation :—

Differ, *dilate*, *dilute*, *discern*, *disturb*.

Of French origin are : *Descant*, *descri*, *despatch*, *discharge*, *discover*, *disdain*, *disease*, *diminish*, *distance*.

Formations in English : *dislike*, *disown*.

Ex-, e- (Latin, O. French *es*, Mod. Fr. *é*, *ex* ; by assimilation *ef*), *out of*, from :—

Exalt, exhale ;

elect, evade ;

effect, effuse.

Ex in a privative sense is a living formative :—

Ex-emperor, ex-mayor, etc.

NOTE.—*Ex* is no longer recognisable in the following words which have come into English through the medium of French :—

Affray (O. French *effrayer*, *esfreer*, from late Latin *ex-fridare*, *ex* out of + late Latin *fridus*, German *Friede*, peace), *amend* (O.Fr. *amender*, Lat. *emendare*), *escape, escheat* (the lapsing of land to the Crown, or to the lord of the manor, on the death of the owner intestate without heirs ; O.Fr. *eschete*, from *escheoir*, late Lat. *ex-cadere*, to fall to a person's share), *essay* (O.Fr. *essai* from late Latin *exagium* in the sense of *ex-amen*, later form of *ex-agmen*), *issue* (O.Fr. *issir* = Lat. *exire*), *sample* (doublet of *example*).

Extra-, beyond :—

Extraneous, extraordinary, extravagant.

English formations (in which *extra-* is an abbreviation of *extraordinary*) : *extra-hours, extra-regular, extra-work*.

Em-, en-, the forms assumed in French and English by the Latin prepositional prefix *in*. *Em* appears before *j*, *p*, and *m*.

(1) Verbs formed by prefixing *en* to substantives : *embalm, embark, embillow* ; *empaper, emplaster* ; *emmarvel* ; *encushion, enthrone*.

(2) Verbs formed of adjectives or substantives with the suffix *-en* :—

Embolden, enlighten, enliven.

(3) Verbs formed of other verbs :—

Emblaze, embreathe, embroider; enact, enchant, enclose, endure, etc.

In-, im-, in, into, on, within.

Inaugurate, innovate, innate, invade;

illustrate, illusion;

imbibe, impart;

irrigate, irritate.

In- (Latin, cp. Greek *ἀν*, Engl. *un*), *not*. Like the Engl. *un* it is prefixed to substantives and adjectives :—

(1) *Inconvenience, impiety, illiberality, etc.*

(2) *Incautious, impolitic, illegal, irregular.*

Inter-, intro- (Latin, O.Fr. *entre, inter*), *between, within, among* :—

Intercede, intercept, interdict; introduce, intromit; introduction, introgression.

Of French origin are : *Interfere, interlace, interplead, interpose; entertain, enterprise.*

English formations : *interlink, intermarry, intermix, etc.*

Post-, after :—

Post-date, post-diluvial, post-pone, post-script.

Pre- (Latin, French *pré-*), *before* :—

Precede, presume, pretence; precinct, preface, prefect, prelate.

English formations : *pre-arrange, pre-meditate, etc.*

Præter-, Latin præter, *beyond, past* :—

Præterite, prætermitt.

English formations : *præternatural* (Brontë, *J. Eyre* i. 171), *præterhuman, præternatural.*

Re-, red-, back, again :—

Recur, recollect, redolent, redound, etc.

Of French origin are : *receive, reclaim, recreant.*

English formations : *re-arrange, re-build, re-open, etc.*

Retro-, backwards :—

Retrocede, retrograde, retrospect.

Of French origin are : *reterward* (F. *arrière-garde, arrière* = *ad retro*), *rear-guard, rear, arrear*.

Sub-, under, up from below ; by assimilation (before c, f, g, m, p, r, s) *suc, suf, sug, sum, sup, sur, sus* :—

Subject, suffix, suppress, etc.

Of French origin are : *succour, summon* (O.F. *somoner*, Latin *submonere*).

English formations : *sub-let, sub-kingdom, sub-worker*.

Super- (Latin, O.Fr. *sovre, sor*, Mod. Fr. *sur*), above, beyond :—

Superlative, superstition, etc.

Of French origin are : *Surface, surfeit, surpass, surprise*.

There are a great many English compounds with this very fertile formative : *super-abundant, super-cargo, super-critical, etc.*

Trans- (O.Fr. *tres*), across :—

Transform, translate, transmontane.

Trespass is of French origin (O.Fr. *trespas*, as if it were from a Latin word *transpassus*).

Vice-, instead of :—

Vice-agent, vice-chancellor, vice-roy.

Bis-, bi-, twice; **bini**, two by two :—

Bissextile, biennial, binocular.

Biscuit is of French origin.

Demi- (French *demi*, Lat. *dimidium*) :—

Demigod, demigodder.

Semi-, half :—

Semi-annual, semi-circle, semi-column.

338. NOTE 1.—In Middle E. and even in the Elizabethan writers prefixes were sometimes omitted, in other words the simple word was used in the same sense as a compound.

Nu wile I shæwenn zuw forrhw
 3ho 3aff swille *sware* onnænes

Now I shall show you why she gave such an answer).—*Ormulum*, 2422. *Sware* = andsware.

þat lang was *hight* nu cumen he is (he that was long promised is now come).—*Cursor Mundi*, 17820.

Hight = *behigh*t.

Thou hast *famed* foule bfore the kyng heere.—*Piers Plowman*, A.

III. 179.

Famed = defamed; cp. *Cursor Mundi*, 13024.

Rive = arrive.—*Arthur and Merlin*, 133; *Sir Pemes of Hampton*, 515.

Tent = entent, intent.—*Ipomadon*, 519; *Cursor Mundi*, 661, 1100.

Found = confound.—*George-a-Green* (ed. Dyce), p. 207.

In words with the prefix *des* (*dis*) *de* was often dropped.

Wycliff has *disclaundren* and *sclaundren*.—*English Works* (ed. Matthew), p. 138 and 144; *stroien* = *distroier*, p. 83; cp. *Libeaus Desconus*, 87; *Sowdon of Babylone*, 780.

Scomfit = *discomfit* (defeat) is very frequent.

In Modern English we have a few remnants of this tendency to drop *de* :—

Spite, Middle E. *despite*, O.Fr. *despit*, Mod. French *dépit*.

Sport, Middle E. *desport*; cp. *disport*.

Stain, Middle E. *disteinen*, O.Fr. *desteindre*.

Stress, Middle E. *distress*.

NOTE 2.—If, in Middle E. the indefinite article, the possessive pronoun, or the demonstrative *that* was followed by a noun beginning with a vowel, the final *-n* or *-t* of the dependent word was often separated from the words to which it belonged, and joined to the noun :—

(1) *a nasse* = an ass.—*Cursor Mundi*, 3152.

a nogli dede = an ugly deed.—*Ibid.* 1106.

Of *a nellen* heght þai ware = an *elne* = a yard.—*Ibid.* 1419.

a nath = an oath.—*Ibid.* 3548.

(2) *þe tother* = þat *other*.—*Ibid.* 84.¹

Very frequent in Middle E.

(3) *þi ðeme* = þin *eme* = thy uncle.—*Cursor Mundi*, 3789.

Cp. *Sir Tristrem*, 921.

þi nere = þin *ere* = thy heir.—*Cursor Mundi*, 2565.

þi nare = þin *are* = thy mercy.—*Ibid.* 10099.

Cp. *a toome* = at (h)oom = at home.—ANDREW BOORDE, p. 122.

In Mod. E. there are several remnants of this misdivision :—

A newt = Middle E. *an cwt* ;

a nick-name = an eke-name ;—on the other hand an initial *n* belonging to the substantive was wrongly added to the article, hence :—

an adder = *a nadder* (German *Natter*) ;

an apron = *a napron* (O. Fr. *naperon*) ;

an auger = *a nauger* ;

an umpire = *a numpire*.

Riding, one of the divisions of the county of York, derives from *th-riding*, O. N. *þrǫðjunga*, the third part, which word gave the compounds *North-riding*, *East-riding*, *West-riding*. In consequence of misdivision the *th* was dropped, when the second part of the compound was used by itself.

SUFFIXES (OF TEUTONIC ORIGIN).

339. A.—NOUN SUFFIXES (PROPERLY SO CALLED).

I.—Dead Suffixes.

-ock :—*bullock*, *buttocks*, *hillock*, *hummock*, *mullock*, *pinnock*, *ruddock*.

In Lowland Scotch we find *laddock*, *lassock*, *mannock*, *wifock*.

Proper names too, as *Davock*, *Bessock*.

In proper names the suffix appears, as *Pollock* (from Paul), *Baldock* (from Baldwin), *Wilcock*, *Wilcox* (from William).

-kin (O. E. *-cen*,¹ German *-chen*) is a diminutive ending :—

Buntkin, *firkin*, *kilderkin*, *lambkin*, *napkin*.—*Manikin* came in through the French :—*mannequin* from Low-German *männe-ken*, High-German *männ-chen*, little man.

In proper names :—*Dawkin* (*David*), *Jenkins* (*John*), *Perkins* (*Peter-kin*), *Simkin* (*Simon*), *Wilkins* (*William*).

¹ Very rare ; the currency of the suffix is due to words adopted from Dutch or Low German.

-ing, representing Teutonic *ingo*z (masc.), has several functions:—

(1) **-ing** (O.E. *-ing*), patronymic:—O.E. *æðeling* (the son of a noble), *cynig* (literally 'son of a king,' *cyn* = king); *Scilfing* (the son of Skilf), *Elising* (the son of Elisa). This suffix is preserved in proper names:—*Harding*, *Manning*, especially in place-names:—*Billingsgate*, *Reading*.

(2) **-ing** is also found in names of animals, as in *herring*, *whiting*.

(3) **-ing** in names of coins has also a sense of diminution, as in *farthing* (= the fourth part, namely, of a penny), *shilling*.

-ling (O.E. *-ling*) originally denotes smallness; hence it may be used to express affection, as in *darling* (O.E. *deorling*, literally 'dearling,' favourite), *duckling*, *gosling*, or contempt as in *groundling*, *hireling*, *underling*, *worldling*.

-l, -le, -el (after *v, th, ch, n*) represents O.E. *-el, -ela, -ele*, and serves to form agent-nouns, instrumental substantives, and diminutives:—

Nail, sail; beadle, fiddle; sickle; apple, bramble, bundle, icicle, nettle, runnel.

-le, -al is sometimes from O.E. *-els* from *isli*:—

Bridle, riddle, burial.

-er (O.E. *-er, -or*): *finger, hammer, hanger, lair, silver, summer.*

-m (O.E. *-ma*): *Blossom* (O.E. *blostma*), *helm, thumb.*

-n:—

(1) Participles: *broken, hewn*, etc.

(2) Substantives: *buirn, beacon, burden, chin, corn, heaven, maiden.*

-nd: *Fiend, friend.*

Both these substantives are originally present participles from the verbs Gothic *fijan* (to hate); *frijôn* (to love) *fjands*, O.E. *fēond*, *frijonds*, O.E. *frēond*.

-est: *earnest, harvest.*

-th (O.E. *-uð*, *-ð*, *-ðu*) forms abstract substantives of adjectives and, later on, of verbs. *Dearth, death, depth, health, length, mirth, strength, truth, warmth; growth, stealth.* With *t* instead of *-th*: *drought, height, theft.*

II.—Living Suffixes.

-en (O.E. *-en*) is added to noun-stems to form adjectives chiefly indicating the material of which a thing is composed. From the sixteenth century onwards there has been a tendency to discard these adjectives for the attributive use of the substantive, as 'in "a gold watch"; only a few words are still familiarly used in their literal sense.

Earthen, wheaten, wooden, woollen.

-ed has two different sources:—

(1) It is cognate with the Aryan suffix *-tós*, Greek, *-τός* and serves to form the past participle of weak verbs.

(2) It is = O.E. *-ede*, and is appended to substantives in order to form adjectives connoting the possession or the presence of the attribute or thing expressed by the substantive. This suffix is now added without restriction to any substantive from which it is desired to form an adjective, with the sense "possessing, provided with, characterized by." —*New English Dictionary.*

Booted, feathered, horned, wooded, &c.

-er (O.E. *-ere*, cognate with Gothic *-areis*, Latin *-arius*). In its original use this suffix was added to substantives, forming derivative substantives with the general sense "a

man who has to do with (the thing denoted by the primary substantive)," and hence chiefly serving to designate persons according to their profession or occupation; e.g. Gothic *𐌵𐌹𐌿𐌺𐌹𐌸*, O.E. *bōcere*, scribe, scholar from *bók*, book; O.E. *sangere*, German, *Sänger*, singer, from *sangwo*, song. Of this type there are many specially English formations: *hatter*, *sla'er*, *tinner*.

Most of the substantives which in early Teutonic gave rise to derivatives in *-arjo-s* also gave rise to weak verbs in *-jan* or *-ōjan* to which the former stood related in sense as agent-nouns. Hence, by analogy, the suffix came to be regarded as a formative of agent-nouns, and with this function it was added to verbal stems both of the weak and the strong conjugation. In Mod.E. they may be formed on all verbs, excepting some of those which have agent-nouns ending in *-or*, and some others for which this function is served by substantives of different formation (e.g. *correspond*, *correspondent*). *N.E.D.*

Grinder, *speaker*, *rider*, *singer*; *leader*, *lender*, *lover*.

NOTE.—When the primitive substantive ends in O.F. in *-ze*, the suffix assumes the form *-yer*, as in *bowyer*, *lawyer*, *sawyer*; and either after the analogy of these or by assimilation to French derivatives in *-ier*, it appears as *-ier* in certain other words of Middle E. date, as *brazier*, *clothier*, *collier*, *glazier*, *grazier*, *hosier*.

-ing as a living suffix has two sources:—

(1) O.E. *-ung*, *-ing*, forming nouns of action from verbs; these often acquire a concrete sense:—

Coming, *dwelling*, *living*, etc.

(2) an alteration of O.E. *-ende*, M.E. *-inde*, the ending of present participles (often used as adjectives):—

Charming, *crowning*, *loving*, etc.

-ish (O.E. *-isc*) forms adjectives from names of nations :—

English, Irish. Contracted forms.—*French* (O.E. *Fren-cisc*, German *Fränkisch*), *Scotch, Welsh* (O.E. *Welisc*).

It conveys a sense of diminution and contempt :—

Longish, oldish, reddish, whitish ; childish, womanish.

-ness (O.E. *-nis, -nes*) forms abstract nouns from adjectives :—

Goodness, greatness, sickness, sweetness.

-ster (O.E. *-estre*), originally a sign of the feminine gender, as in O.E. *bæcestre* (female baker), *tappestre* (female tapster). Later on *-ster* was also applied to men. Many of these trade-names in *-ster* survive only as proper names, such as *Baxter, Brewster, Webster*. In Mod.E. this ending is also used to express "one who does a thing habitually," generally with an implication of contempt, as in *punster, trickster*.

-y, -ie.—The Teutonic suffix *-ig (-ag)* served in English

(1) As a substantival suffix, as in *bod-ig* (body), *ifig* (ivy), *hunig* (honey). Perhaps the final *-y*, sometimes spelled *-ie*, with which in Modern E. nouns are made into diminutives or words of contempt, is a survival of this suffix, cp. *puppy, baby, lassie*, from *pup, babe, lass*, *Billy* from *Bill* = William, *Betsy, Lizzie*.¹

(2) *-ig* as a living formative forms adjectives from substantives :—

Bloody, crafty, dusty, foamy, etc.

It is likewise added to Romanic words :—*flowery, savoury, etc.*

¹ Sweet, *New English Grammar*, § 1608.

340. B.—NOUN SUFFIXES, FORMERLY INDEPENDENT WORDS.

The following formations might really be treated under the head of *Composition*:—

1.—Forming Substantives.

1.—Dead Suffixes.

-head in *godhead*, *maidenhead*. For this suffix see under *-hood*, below, p. 322.

-lock in *wedlock*. In O.E. *-líc* was added to stems in the sense of 'action,' as in *réaflác* (robbery), *wedlác* (marriage).

Knowledge, Middle E. *knouſeche* and *knowlage* seems to be from the verb *knawlechen*, with suffix O.E. *lécen* (as in *néahlécen*, to approach), derived from *-léc*.

-red (O.E. *-ráden*, from the noun *ráðan* 'regulation,' 'agreement'); in O.E. it was applied only to nouns, as *fréondráden* (relationship, friendship), *marwíráden* (allegiance). *Hatred* dates from the Middle E. period; *kindred* was in O.E. *cynrcn* (line of descendants), a shortening of *cynn-ryne* (running, course of kin), in Middle E. the meaningless *-ren* was supplanted by *-red*.

-ric, -rick (O.E. *ríce*, German *Reich*, province, dominion. in many compounds as *heofon-ríce*, 'the kingdom of heaven,' *cýne-ríce*, 'kingdom'):—

Bishopric (O.E. *bisæopríce*), the province of a bishop: a diocese.

II.—Living Suffixes.

-craft (O.E. *cræft*, skill, art):—

Book-craft, leech-craft, priest-craft, star-craft, wood-craft.

-dom (O.E. *dóm*, judgment, authority, rank, power, German *-thum*):—

Dukedom, kingdom, thraldom, wisdom.

-hood (O.E. *hād*, rank, condition, character, nature, as in *biscep-hād*, rank of a bishop, episcopacy; *mægð-hād*, virginity); the regular development of *hād*, as an independent word, would be *hoād* (cp. *āð*, oath, *rād*, road); but as a suffix we find it represented by two distinct forms, both irregular, which are not easy to account for¹:—

-head (Middle E. *-hede*) in *maidenhead*, *godhead*;

-hood as a living formative in many words of old and recent origin:—

Childhood, manhood; hardihood, likelihood.

-kind (O.E. *cyñn*):—

Mankind, womankind.

-ship (O.E. *-scipe*, from *scieppan*, to create, shape):—

Friendship, hardship, lordship, worship.

¹ The suffix being unstressed, the modern representative of the *ā* would normally be the obscure short vowel (nearly resembling the *u* in *but*) as in *stirrup*, O.E. *stig-ráp*; probably this would be the sound were it not for the influence of the spelling *-hood*, inherited from the time when *oo* stood for the long *o*. The form *-head* (Middle E. *-hede*) is more puzzling; Mr. Sweet suggests that the original *brother-red* (see *-red* in I.) was changed into *brother-hede*, and that the suffix thus evolved was extended to other words which had originally *-hād*; others have thought that in some O.E. dialect *-hād* may have formed its instrumental case with vowel-mutation, *-hæde*.

2.—*Forming Adjectives.*I.—**Dead Suffixes.**

-fast (O.E. *fæst*):—

Soothfast, steadfast.

-worth (O.E. *weorð, wurð*):—

Dearworth, stalworth (stalwart).

II.—**Living Suffixes.**

-fold (O.E. *feald*):—

Two-fold, manifold, etc.

-ful (O.E. *-full*):—

Artful, careful, hateful, etc.

-less (O.E. *læs*, destitute of, Gothic *-laus*, German *-los*):—

Artless, fearless, joyless, etc.

-ly (O.F. *-lic*, originally = 'body,' *wiflic* thus meaning 'having the body or form of a woman,') is added to substantives and adjectives:

Manly, godly, wifely:

goodly, loathly.

-some (O.E. *-sum*, German *-sam*):—

Burdensome, handsome, troublesome;

blithesome, wearisome, wholesome.

Buxom originally means 'pliable,' 'good-natured,' O.E. *būhsam* from *būgan* to bow, bend.

-ward (O.E. *-weard*) is connected with O.E. *weorðan*, to become, Latin *veriti*. It forms adjectives from substantives, adjectives, adverbs, and prepositions:—

Eastward, homeward, townward:

midward:

downward, upward;

forward, inward, toward.

3.—*Forming Adverbs.*I.—**Dead Suffixes.**

-ling, -long (O.E. *-lunga*):—

Darkling, headlong, sidelong.

-meal (O.E. *-málum*):—

Inchmeal, (Tempest, ii., 2, 3) (by inchmeals), *limb-meal* (Cymbeline ii., 2, 147), *piecemeal*.

II.—**Living Suffixes.**

-ly (O.E. *-lice*, the adverbial form of adjectives ending in *-lic*; when final *-e* was dropped and thus the distinction between adjectives and adverbs was lost, the ending *-ly* was seized upon as a mark of adverbial function):—

Hardly, utterly, wickedly.

-wise (O.E. *wise*, manner, mode):—

Crosswise, likewise, nowise, otherwise.

-ways:—

Always, otherways.

341. C.—**VERBAL SUFFIXES.**I.—**Dead Suffixes.**

Many strong verbs inserted in Teutonic *-j* between the root and endings, such as *bid-j-an*, O.E. *biddan* (to bid), *skap-j-an*, O.E. *sciæppan* (to create, shape), *sit-j-an*, O.E. *sittan* (to sit).

Of the suffixes which served to build up the three classes of weak verbs only the suffix *-jo* has left its traces in the so-called causative verbs whose vowel-mutation is due to the *-j* of the suffix *-jo*.

-*k* serves as a frequentative in some verbs:—

Heark (O.E. *hēarcȳian*, *hýrcnian*, German *hören*) from *hear*;

Lurk (Middle E. *lurken*) from a Scandinavian word *lúra*, Eng. *to lour*: cp. German *lauern*;

Walk (O.E. *wealcan*); cp. German *walken*.

-*l* adds to the root the sense of frequency, repetition, diminution:—

Drizzle, *grapple*, *nestle*, *sparkle*.

-*s* used to form transitive verbs from adjectives has survived in two instances:—

Cleanse (O.E. *clēnsian*), *rinse* (Scandinavian *hreinsa*, from *hreinn*, pure, Germ. *rein*).

II.—Living Suffixes.

The only living verbal formative is -*en*:—

Darken, *deepen*, *harden*, *madden*, *moisten*, *widen*;
hearten, *heighten*, *lengthen*, *strengthen*.

"Most of the words of this type seem to have been formed in late M.E. or early Mod. E. on the analogy of a few verbs which came down from O.E., or, were adopted from O.N.; e.g. *fasten*, O.E. *festnian*; *brighten*, O. Northumbrian *berhtnia*; *harden*, O.N. *harðna*."—*New English Dictionary*

SUFFIXES (OF ROMANIC ORIGIN).

342. A.—NOUN SUFFIXES.

1.—Forming Substantives.

I.—Dead Suffixes.

-*ive* (*iff*), originally an adjectival suffix:—

Baillif (O.Fr. *baillif*, object case of *baillis*, late Latin

bajulivus, from *bajulus*, 'a carrier,' afterwards 'carrier on,' 'manager,' 'administrator'.

Captive, motive, native, plaintiff.

-or, -our, forming agent-nouns; from Old French *-or*, *our* (in Modern French *-eur*), originally representing L. *-atōrem*, but in E still a living suffix:—

Conqueror, emperor, saviour.

-or, -our, forming abstract nouns from Latin *-ōrem* through Old French *-our*.—

Ardeur, colour, favour, honour.

Note.—There are a few English formations with *-our*, but this suffix cannot properly be called "living." *Demeanour, behaviour.*

-ule forming diminutives, from L. *-ulus, -ula, -ulum* in *capsule, globule, pustule*, also **-cule** (Lat. *culus, -cula, -culum*) as *animalcule, molecule*, or (through French) *-cle* as:—

Article.

A different Latin suffix *-culum*, forming substantives from verbs, is represented in the form *-cle* in several words adopted through French:—

Miracle, oracle, spectacle.

-ance, -ence (Latin *-antia, entia*, French *-ance*):—

Arrogance, entrance, grievance, repentance; experience, innocence, penitence.

-ancy, -ency ("a modern English differentiated form of the earlier *-ance*, expressing more distinctly the sense of *quality, state, or condition*, often belonging to Latin substantives in *-ntia*, as in *elegantia*, 'elegant-ness,' *prudentia*, 'prudentness,' as distinct from the sense of *action* or *process*, regularly expressed by the French form *-ance*, as in *aide-ance*,

assist-ance, guidance. If the Latin *diligentia, elegantia, prudentia* were now for the first time adopted as English, they would be made *diligency, elegancy, prudency*; they owe their existing forms in *-nce* to the fact that they were adopted from French long before *-ncy* came in use. But many words, once like these, have been refashioned, and now appear with *-ncy*, e.g. *constancy, infancy, piquancy, vacancy*; the modern tendency being to confine *-nce* to action, and to express quality or state by *-ncy*; cf. *compliance, pliancy, annoyance, buoyancy.*") *New English Dictionary.*

-ant, -ent, from the object case of the Latin present participle *-ans* (genitive *antis*), *-ens* and the corresponding French suffix *-ant* :—

Inhabitant, instant; *agent, student, torrent*; *merchant, servant.*

-ard (O. French *-ard, -art*, German *-hart*, 'hard, strong'; in German it forms part of personal names as in *Rein-hard, Gotthardt, Eberhard, neidhart*, an envious man. In French it was used in an intensive, augmentative, and often pejorative sense, as in *bastard, canard, mouchard, vieillard*) :—

Bustard, coward, drunkard, laggard, sluggard, wizard.

-ary (Latin *-arius*) :—

Dignitary, incendiary, secretary.

-ice, -ess, -ise (Latin *-itia, -ities*, late Latin *-icia*, French *-essè*) :—

Avarice, cowardice, justice, malice, notice;

largess, riches (mistaken for a plural).

-ion, -sion, -tion, (Latin *-io -tio, -sio*, French *-ion, -sion*) :—

Opinion, rebellion, religion;

aversion, compulsion, detestation;

action delusion. faction.

NOTE.—Some words ending in *-son* came in through French, where the regular development of the Latin suffix *-tio(n)* is *-son*, as in *raison*, *trahison* (cp. *tradition*). Hence in English :—

Arson, reason, treason.

-itude (Latin *-itudo*) :—

Fortitude, multitude, servitude.

-ty (Latin *-tas*, *-tatem*, O. French *té*) :—

Authority, beauty, bounty, charity, cruelty, frailty, honesty.

-ure (Latin *-ura*, French *-ure*) :—

Capture, censure, departure.

In the words *leisure*, *pleasure*, *treasure* we have a change of suffix, cp. French *loisir* (O. French *leisir*, Latin *licere*), *plaisir* (Latin *placere*), *trésor*.

-y (Latin *-ia*, French *-ie*) :—

Barony, comedy, family, tragedy.

-y (Latin *-ium*) :—

Augury, monastery, remedy.

-y (Latin *-atus*, French *-é*) :—

Clergy, county, duchy, treaty.

-y (Latin *-ata*, French *-é*) :—

Army, country, destiny, entry.

II.—Living Suffixes.

-ade (Latin *-ata*, which, in popular French words appears as *-é*, becomes *-ade* in words which are borrowed from the Provençal, Spanish, Portuguese, and even Italian, as in *accolade*, *gasconnade*). From French words in *-ade*

many were adopted in English, as *ambassade*, *ambuscade*, *balustrade*, *brigade*, *cascade*, etc. In imitation of these some have been formed in English itself, as *blockade*, *gingerade*, *orangeade*.

-age (*-aticum*, French *-age*):—

Cordage, *language*, *personage*, *voyage*, etc.

Of English formation: *Bondage*, *brewage*, *cellarage*, *parsonage*.

-al. Latin nouns in *-ālia* (neut. plur.) which survived into O.Fr. became *-aille* (fem. sing.) adopted in Middle E. as *-aylle*, *-aille*, later *-aile*, *-al*, as Latin *sponsālia*, O.Fr. *espousailles*, Middle E. *spousaille*, *spousal*; L. *battālia*, O.Fr. *bataille*, Middle E. *bataille*, *batail*, battle. On this analogy, *-aille*, *-ail*, *-al* became a formative of nouns of action on verbs of French or Latin, and even of Teutonic origin:

Approval, *avowal*;

denial, *dismissal*;

removal, *revival*;

betrothal, *bestowal*, *withdrawal*.

-an (Latin *-anus*, French *-ain*, *-en*, originally an adjectival suffix):—

Artisan, *pagan*, *publican*, *veteran*;

Anglican, *Arminian*, *Lutheran*;

American, *Oxonian*, *Russian*.

-cy, **-sy** (originally answering to Latin *-tia*, as in *constancy*, or Latin *-tio*, as in *conspiracy*, *obstinacy*; later on it became an independent suffix denoting condition, rank, and office):—

Accuracy, *bankruptcy*, *intimacy*, *lunacy*;

captaincy, *curacy*, *magistracy*, *papacy*;

minstrelsy.

-ee (French *-é*) was first used in technical terms of English law in imitation of Old French words, as *appellee* (Fr. *appelé*), *indorsee* (a person in whose favour a draft is indorsed); later on it became an independent living suffix, denoting, in most cases, the indirect object of the verbs from which they are derived:—

Grantee, jester, legatee, mortgagee, trustee.

In *absentee, devotee*, the old function of *-ee* is entirely lost; *refugee* appears to be adopted from French *refugié*; *grandee* is adopted from the Spanish *grande*.

-er, -eer, -ier, -ar (Latin *-arius*, Fr. *-ier*):—

*Archer, butcher, carpenter, draper, messenger, prisoner ;
engineer, harpooneer, mountaineer, pioneer ;
brigadier, cavalier ;
calendar, scholar, vicar.*

-ess (late Latin *-issa*, Fr. *-esse*) denotes the female sex in persons and animals:—

Baroness, countess, goddess, etc.

See Substantives, p. 140.

-et (French *-et*, feminine *-ette*, of unknown origin) forms diminutives:—

Castlet, circlet, coronet, lancet, locke', pocket, turret.

Certain diminutives formed with *-et* on substantives ending in *-el*, such as *castlet, circlet*, have given rise to a new suffix *-let*, which has become in English a living formative instead of *-et*:—

Bracelet, frontlet, leaflet, ringlet, streamlet.

-ism, -icism (Latin *-ismus* from Greek *-ισμός*):—

*Archaism, despotism, hypnotism, mannerism, mesmerism ;
Anglicism, Gallicism, Scotticism ;
fanaticism, witticism.*

-ist (Latin *-ista* from Greek *-ιστής* forms agent-nouns with the sense of 'trade,' 'pursuit,' adherence to creed and party :—

Artist, chemist, copyist, dramatist, florist, tobaccoist, communist, nihilist, royalist.

-ite (Latin *-ita* from Greek *-ίτης*) originally forms names of nations, as Canaanite, Israelite, Semite; now it has also the sense of belonging to a creed or party, thus being a rival of the suffix *-ist* :—

Ibsenite, Jacobite, Jesuit.

-ment (Latin *-mentum*, Fr. *-ment*) :—

Experiment, instrument, pavement;

Of English formation :—

Acknowledgement, enjoyment, employment.

-ry (French *-rie* = *er* + *ie*, had originally a collective meaning, as *chevalerie* "body of knights") serves several functions :—

(a) action or quality :—

Bigotry, devilry, drudgery, pedantry, knavery, revelry, sorcery;

(b) condition :—

Outlawry, slavery;

(c) trade :—

Carpentry, chemistry, heraldry;

(d) the place of action or occupation :—

Buttery, laundry, nursery, workery;

(e) the result or product of action :—

Poetry, tapestry;

(f) forming collective nouns :—

Infantry, peasantry, yeomanry.

2.—Forming Adjectives.

I.—Dead Suffixes.

-ant, -ent (Latin present participles, French *-ant*) :—
Abundant, arrogant, buoyant, brilliant ;
absent, eminent, innocent, penitent.

-ar (Latin *-aris*, French *-ier* or *-aire*) :
Angular, familiar, popular, regular.

-ary (Latin *-arius*, French *-aire*) :—
Contrary, necessary, secondary.

-ate, see below *-t*.

-bund and -cund (Latin *-bundus* and *-cundus*, French *-bond* and *-cond*) :—
Facund, moribund, rubicund.

-ent, see above *-ant*.

-esque (French *-esque*, Italian *-esco* from the Teutonic suffix *-isc*: see *-ish* above, § 339) :—
Arabesque, burlesque, grotesque, romanesque.

This might almost be reckoned among living suffixes, as words like *Dantesque* are often imitated in the formation of new adjectives on proper names, with the notion "resembling the style of": *Carlylesque, Turneresque*.

-id (Latin *-idus*) :—
Liquid, morbid, so did.

-il, -ile (Latin *-ilis* from verbal roots, *-ilis* from noun-stems) :—
Civil ; fragile, hostile, servile.

-ior (Latin *-ior*, the comparative ending) :—
Inferior, junior, senior.

-ive (Latin *-ivus*) :—
Active, extensive, furtive.

-lent (Latin *-lentus*) :—

Corpulent, esculent, violent.

-t, -ate, -ete, -ite, -ute (all adapted forms of the endings of past participles in Latin according to the conjugation of the verbs from which they are formed) :—

Abject, abrupt, distinct, elect, perfect ;

accurate, desolate, ordinate ;

complete, replete ;

contrite, definite, exquisite ;

absolute, acute, destitute, minute.

II.—Living Suffixes.

-al (Latin *-alis*, French *-al, -el*) :—

Annual, casual, equal, legal, loyal, mortal ;

Of English or French formation :—

Circumstantial, cordial, constitutional, marginal, national, proportional.

Cp. below *-ical*.

-an (Latin *-anus*, French *-ain, -en*) :—

Human, pagan, urban ;

Of English formation :—

Anglican, Mahomedan, reptilian, suburban.

See above, Substantives, p. 329.

-ble (Latin, according to the stem-ending, *-abilis, -ibilis, -ibilis, -ibilis* ; the most numerous of the words in *-ble* being those in *-able*, this form of the suffix was adopted as a living formative) :—

Invisible, dissoluble ;

amiable, blamable, chargeable, favorable, malleable.

In most cases this suffix has a passive meaning.

NOTE.—The great applicability of *-able* is best seen in the coinage of the words *come-at-able, get-at-able*.

-ese (Latin *-ensis*, O. French *-eis*, Mod. French *-ois*, *-ais*):—

Chinese, Japanese, Milanese ;
Carlylese, Johnsonese.

-ian (Latin *-ianus*, French *-ien*):—

Arabian, Christian, Italian.

Cp. *-an* above.

-ic (Greek *-ικός*, Latin *-icus*, French *-ic*, *-igne*):—

Aesthetic, aromatic, athletic, domestic, emphatic.

-ical:—

Angelical, comical, luck-a-daisical, whimsical.

-ine (Latin *-inus*, French *-in*):—

Adamantine, crystalline, divine, Philistine.

-ose, -ous (Latin *-osus*, French *-eux*):—

Bellicose, jocose, morose, verbose ;
Arduous, callous, delirious, furious ;

Of English formation:—

Mischievous, murderous, wondrous.

343. B.—VERBAL SUFFIXES.

-ate. In O.E. verbs were regularly formed on adjectives, as *hwīt* (white), *hwitian* (to whiten), *wearm* (warm), *wyrman* (to warm). In consequence of the loss of the inflexions these verbs became by the fifteenth century identical in form with the adjectives, e.g. *to white*, *to warm*, *to busy*, etc. This use once established, it was only natural that verbs should also be formed from Latin adjectives without any inflexion, as *to clear*, *to humble*, *to manifest*, and

thus the adjectives adapted from Lat. past participles began generally in the sixteenth century to yield verbs of identical form, e.g. to *aggravate*, to *direct*, to *separate*. This once done, it became the recognised method of englishing a Latin verb to take the past participle stem of the Latin as the present stem of the English.

Examples of English formation :—

Assassinate, camphorate, capacitate, differentiate, fascinate, felicitate, isolate, nobilitate, vaccinate.

-fy (French *-fier* from Latin *-ficare*) :—

Edify, fortify, magnify, qualify.

-ish (French *-iss* in many forms of the *-ir* conjugation, as *nous finissons, que je finisse*) :—

Abolish (abolir), cherish (cherir), flourish.

-ize, -ise (French *-iser*, Latin *-izare* from Greek *-ίζειν*) :—

Agonize, authorize, bowdlerize, civilize, minimize, realize.

344. NOTE.—In some words a change of the suffix has taken place, or the old suffix was no longer understood and a new word has taken its place.

(1) *-if* was replaced by *-y* in the words *hasty, jolly*. In Middle E. we find both *-if* and *-y*, the former representing the French word in its objective case, the latter in the nominative case. Cp. *bailly* and *baillif*. On the other hand Wyclif has *gylltif* together with *guilty*.—*Unprinted English Works* (ed. Matthew), p. 9.¹

(2) *-ir* was replaced by *-ure* in *leisure* (O.Fr. *leisir*), *pleasure* (*plaisir*).

(3) *-wis* was replaced by *-ous* in *righteous* (O.E. *rihtwis*).

¹ Cp. *hussy* = O.E. *hūs-wif*, house-wife.

(4) In *livelihood* we have an instance of popular etymology. In O.E. *liflād* = *lif* life + *lād* way; the second part was no longer understood, and thus *lihood* took its place.

(5) In *kindred-red* came in, when the second part of the O.E. *cynren* = a course of descendants, was no longer understood.

(6) *Shamefaced* is in O.E. *scamfæst*; cp. *soothfast*, *steadfast*.

(7) In the words *auger*, *heifer*, *sheller*, what looks like the suffix *-er*, was an independent substantive. (See p. 338.)

345. Two or more words are joined together to make a single term expressing a new notion, as *oak-tree*, *free-man*, *sea-sick*.

I.—*Substantive Compounds*.

(1) Substantive and Substantive.

(a) Descriptive, as *church-yard*, *even-tide*, *head-master*, *noon-meal*, *spear-plant*.

(b) Appositional, as *beech-tree*, *oak-tree*.

(c) Genitive, as *doomsday*, *kinsman*, *Tuesday*.

(d) Accusative, as *blood-shedding*, *man-killer*.

NOTE.—Compounds like *Lord-lieutenant*, *earl-marshal*, are of French origin, and in analogy to these were formed a great many quasi-compounds, as *Prince-Consort*, *emperor-king*, etc. In Middle E. we find *knave-child* = male child, *meistres princes* (*Story of Genesis and Exodus*, 3576).

In many compound terms the elements have become changed or obsolete, and are not easily recognized.

ban-dog = Middle E. *band-dogge* = a dog chained up.

barn = O.E. *bere-ærn* = barley-house.

brim-stone = Middle E. *bren-stoon* = *burn-stone*.

bridal = O.E. *brýd-ealu* = bride-ale, *i.e.* bride-feast.

gospel = O.E. *gōð-spell*¹ = good "spell," *i.e.* tidings.

grunsel = Middle E. *grund-syl* = ground-sil.

heifer = O.E. *heah-fore* = high cow.

hussy = O.E. *hūs-wif* = house wife.

icicle = O.E. *is-icel* = ice-jag.

Lammas = O.E. *hlāf-mæsse* = loaf-mass.

nightingale = O.E. *nihte-gale* = night-singer.

auger = O.E. *næfe-gār* = nave-spear, nave-borer.

nostril = *næs-ðýrēl* = nose-hole.

orchard = O.E. *ort-geard* = herb-garden.

shelter = O.E. *scild-truma* = shield-troop, guard.

stirrup = O.E. *stīg-rāp* = climbing rope.

steward = O.E. *stīg-weard* = guardian of cattle, domestic offices, etc.

whitlow = *quick-flaw* (Scand.) = sore under the nail. *i.e.* *flaw* or flaking off of the skin in the neighbourhood of the *quick*, or sensitive part of the finger round the nail.

(2) Substantive and Adjective—*black-bird*, *free-man*, *mid-day*, *mid-night*, *mid-summer*.

(3) Substantive and Numeral—*fort-night*, *sen-night*, *twilight*.

(4) Substantive and Pronoun—*self-esteem*, *self-will*.

(5) Substantive and Verb—*Cake-house*, *grind-stone*, *pick-pocket*, *pin-fold*, *spend-thrift*, *wash-house*.

A substantive is often qualified by another substantive, to which it is joined by a preposition, as *man-of-war*, *will-o'-the-wisp*, *brother-in-law*.

¹ Apparently this word, formed as a literal translation of *εὐαγγέλιον*, was very early misinterpreted by those who became acquainted with it. In its written form, the first element being supposed to be *god* "God" instead of *gōð* "good." Hence the forms in which the word was borrowed in Old Saxon, Old High German, and Old Norse.

II.—*Adjective Compounds.*

(1) Substantive and Adjective, in which the substantive has the force of an adverb, as *blood-red* = red as blood, *cone-shaped*, *eagle-eyed*, *fire-proof*, *sea-sick*, *snow-white*.

(2) Adjective and Substantive, denoting possession, as *bare-foot*, *Longshanks*, *mad-cap*. Cp. O.E. *clæn-heort* = having a clean heart, *án-éage* = having one eye.

In the corresponding forms the substantive has taken the suffix *-ed*, as *bare-footed*, *bare-headed*, *four-footed*, *one-eyed*.

(3) Participial combinations, in which the participle is the last element.

(a) Substantive and present participle, in which the first element is the object of the second; as *earth-shaking*, *heart-rending*.

(b) Adjective and present participle, in which the first element is equivalent to an adverb; as *deep-musing*, *fresh-looking*, *ill-looking*.

(c) Substantive and past participle, as *ale-fed*, *book-learned*, *death-doomed*, *earth-born*, *moth-eaten*, *sea-torn*, *wind-fallen*.

(d) Adjective or adverb and past participle, as *dead-drunk*, *dear-bought*, *fresh-blown*, *full-fed*, *high-finished*, *new-made*, *well-born*.

III.—*Verbal Compounds.*

1. Substantive and verb, as *back-bite*, *brow-beat*, *kiln-dry*.

2. Adjective and verb, as *dumb-found*, *white-wash*.

3. Adverb and verb, as *back-slide*, *cross-question*, *doff* (= do off), *don* (= do on).

APPENDICES .

APPENDIX I

I. KELTIC ELEMENT IN MODERN ENGLISH

1. KELTIC words existing in the oldest English :¹—

Bannock, brock (badger), *crook* (?), *glen*.

2. Keltic words of early introduction still found in English :—

cam (crooked), *crag*, *spigot*.

3. Keltic words of recent origin (adopted since the fifteenth century) :—

Bas, *brogue*, *clan*, *claymore* (great sword), *Druid*, *glibeg*, *gag*, *garran*,² *piobroch*, *plaid*, *shamrock*, *slab* (?), *whiskey*.

4. Keltic words introduced by Norman-French :—

Barter, *barrator*, *bran* (?), *gravel*, *gown*, *harness*, *marl*.

II. LATIN ELEMENT IN THE OLDEST ENGLISH.

A. Latin³ of the first period.

æstel,	Lat. <i>hastula</i> , book-marker
ancor,	„ <i>ancora</i> , anchor
arc,	„ <i>arctā</i> , ark
Balsam,	„ <i>balsamum</i> (βάλαμον)
belt,	„ <i>balteus</i> , belt

¹ These have no cognates in the other Teutonic dialects.

² Used by Spenser.

³ For the most part popular or Low Latin.

béte,	Lat. <i>beta</i> , beet-root
bolt,	„ <i>catapulta</i> (?)
box,	„ <i>buxus</i> , box-tree
but(e)re,	„ <i>butyrum</i> , butter
byden,	„ <i>butina</i> , a bushel
bylge,	„ <i>bulg(e)a</i> , bulge, bag
bytt,	„ <i>buttis</i> , bottle
Candel (condel),	„ <i>candela</i> , candle
cásere,	„ <i>Casar</i>
castel,	„ <i>castellum</i> , castle
céac,	„ <i>caucus</i> , pitcher
cealc,	„ <i>calx</i> , plaster, cement
cealu,	„ <i>calvus</i> , bald
céas,	„ <i>causa</i> , quarrel
ceaster,	„ <i>castra</i> , fortress, city
cellendre,	„ <i>coriandrum</i> , coriander
cemes,	„ <i>camisia</i> , chemise
ceren (cyren),	„ <i>carenum</i> , sweet wine
cése (cýse),	„ <i>caseus</i> , cheese
cipe,	„ <i>cepa</i> , onion
cist,	„ <i>cista</i> , chest
clústor,	„ <i>claustrum</i> , lock, bar, cell
cóc,	„ <i>coquus</i> , cock
comp,	„ <i>campus</i> , battle
copor,	„ <i>cuprum</i> , copper
corn-tréow,	„ <i>cornus</i> , cornel-tree
crycc,	„ <i>crucea</i> , crutch
cuclere,	„ <i>cochlear</i> , spoon
culter,	„ <i>culter</i> , coulter, dagger
cweartern,	„ <i>quartarium</i> , prison
cycene,	„ <i>coquina</i> , kitchen
cýlle,	„ <i>culleus</i> , flagon, vessel
cýln,	„ <i>culina</i> , kiln
cymen,	„ <i>cuminum</i> , cummin
cyrfet,	„ <i>cycurbita</i> , gourd
cyrse,	„ <i>cerasus</i> , cherry
Disc,	„ <i>discus</i> , dish
draca,	„ <i>draco</i> , dragon
ƒced,	„ <i>acetum</i> , vinegar
éle,	„ <i>oleum</i> , oil
elpend (ylpend),	„ <i>elephas</i> , elephant
Féfer,	„ <i>febris</i> , fever
fic,	„ <i>figus</i> , fig
fife,	„ <i>fibula</i> , buckle
force,	„ <i>furca</i> , fork
fullere,	„ <i>fullo</i> , fuller
Lacu (?),	„ <i>lacus</i> , pond
læfel,	„ <i>labellum</i> , bowl, vessel
lilige,	„ <i>lilium</i> , lily

Marma, marman-	
stán,	Lat. <i>marmor</i> , marble
mealwe,	„ <i>malva</i> , mallow
meregreot,	„ <i>margarita</i> , pearl
tníl,	„ <i>míla</i> , mile
minte,	„ <i>mentha</i> , mint
mixian (?),	„ <i>miscere</i> , mix
mortere,	„ <i>mortarium</i> , mortar
múl,	„ <i>mulus</i> , mule
muht,	„ <i>mons</i> , mount
mydd,	„ <i>modius</i> , bushel
myln,	„ <i>molina</i> , mill
mynet,	„ <i>moneta</i> , coin
mýse (mése),	„ <i>mensa</i> , table
náp,	„ <i>napus</i> , turnip,
ombor,	„ <i>amphora</i>
Ord,	„ <i>orca</i> , cup, tankard
orel,	„ <i>ovarium (orale)</i> , garment, veil
ostre,	„ <i>ostrea</i> , oyster
Pál,	„ <i>palus</i> , pale, stake
pæll,	„ <i>pallium</i> , pall
páwa,	„ <i>pavo</i> , peacock
persoc,	„ <i>persica</i> , peach
peru (pere),	„ <i>pirum</i> , pear
pic,	„ <i>pix</i> , pitch
pihten,	„ <i>pecten</i> , part of a loom
píl,	„ <i>pilum</i> , a stick with a point
pilece,	„ <i>pellucium</i> , peliose
pipor,	„ <i>piper</i> , pepper
pisu,	„ <i>pisum</i> , pea
plant,	„ <i>planta</i> , plant
plaster,	„ <i>emplastrum</i> , plaster
plúme,	„ <i>pluma</i> , plum, or
plýme,	„ <i>plumea</i> , plum
plúm-feðerc,	„ <i>pluma</i> , down
popig,	„ <i>papaver</i> , poppy
porr,	„ <i>porrum</i> , leek
port,	„ <i>porta</i> , gate
portic,	„ <i>porticus</i> , porch
post,	„ <i>postis</i> , post, pedestal
pund,	„ <i>poodus</i> , pound
pytt,	„ <i>puteus</i> , pit
rædic,	„ <i>radix</i> , radish
Rose,	„ <i>rosa</i> , rose
Sæcc,	„ <i>saccus</i> , sack-clot
sacerd,	„ <i>sacerdos</i> , priest
sæp,	„ <i>sapa</i> , sap
sæternesdæg,	„ <i>Saturni dies</i> , Saturday
sceamol,	„ <i>scamellum</i> , foot-stool

scrin,	Lat.	<i>scrinium</i> , shrine
sealtian,	„	<i>saltare</i> , to dance
seam,	„	<i>sagma</i> , horse-load
segn,	„	<i>signum</i> , banner
senep,	„	<i>sinapi</i> (?), mustard
seolc,	„	<i>sericum</i> , silk
sester,	„	<i>sextarius</i> , a measure
sicol,	„	<i>secula</i> , sickle
sicor,	„	<i>securus</i> , sickle, safe
soc,	„	<i>soccus</i> , sock
sollere,	„	<i>solarium</i> , upper room
spelt,	„	<i>spelta</i> , spelt
stræt,	„	<i>strata</i> , street
sútere,	„	<i>sutor</i> , cobbler
Tigele,	„	<i>tegula</i> , tile
trifot,	„	<i>tributum</i> , tribute
tæfl,	„	<i>tabula</i> , table
torr,	„	<i>turris</i> , tower
trims,	„	<i>trimissis</i> , a coin
truht,	„	<i>trutta</i> , trout
tunic,	„	<i>tunica</i> , tunic
weall,	„	<i>vallum</i> , wall
wíc,	„	<i>vicus</i> , dwelling
wín,	„	<i>vinum</i> , wine
ynce,	„	<i>uncia</i> , inch

III. LATIN OF THE SECOND PERIOD (CHURCH LATIN).

Abbod,	Lat.	<i>abbas</i> , abbot
ancra,	„	<i>anachoreta</i> , anchorite, hermit
antefn,	„	<i>antiphonia</i> , anthem
apostol,	„	<i>apostolus</i>
basilisca,	„	<i>basiliscus</i> , basilisk
biscop,	„	<i>episcopus</i> , bishop
calend,	„	<i>calendæ</i> , calends
calic,	„	<i>calix</i> , chalice
canon,	„	<i>canonicus</i> , canon
capitol, capola,	„	<i>capitulum</i> , chapter
chor,	„	<i>chorus</i> , choir
créda,	„	<i>credo</i> , creed
Cristen,	„	<i>Christianus</i> , Christian
démon,	„	<i>dæmon</i> , demon
díaton,	„	<i>diaconus</i> , deacon
déofol,	„	<i>diabolus</i> , devil
discipul,	„	<i>discipulus</i> , disciple
ælmesse,	„	<i>eleemossyna</i> , alms
fers,	„	<i>versus</i> , verse
mæsse,	„	<i>missa</i> , mass

munuc,	Lat. <i>monachus</i> , monk
mynster,	,, <i>monasterium</i> , minster
nunne,	,, <i>nonna</i> , nun
nón,	,, <i>nona</i> , noon
offrian,	,, <i>offerre</i> , to offer
organe,	,, <i>organum</i> , organ
palm,	,, <i>palma</i> , palm
pápa,	,, <i>papa</i> , pope
pistol,	,, <i>epistola</i> , epistle
précúst,	,, <i>presbyter</i> , priest
predician,	,, <i>predicare</i> , preach
prím,	,, <i>prima</i> , prime
salm,	,, <i>psalmus</i> , psalm
saltere,	,, <i>psalterium</i> , salter
regol,	,, <i>regula</i> , rule
sanct,	,, <i>sanctus</i> , saint
scól,	,, <i>schola</i> , school
tempel,	,, <i>templum</i> , temple

IV. SCANDINAVIAN ELEMENTS IN ENGLISH.

Aloft, anger, askew, awe.
Bait, bark, bask, beck, billow, blunder (?), blunt (?), bole, brink, brunt (?), busk.
Carp, cast, clip, clumsy, cur.
Dairy, dash, daze, dazzle, drag, drip, droop.
Fell, fellow, flake, fear, flit, flush, fond, fro.
Gabble, gaby, gait, gale, gasp, gaze, glance, gloss, grovel, guess, gust.
Ill, inkling.
Keg, ken, kidnap, kill, kirtle.
Leak, lee, leg, loft, luncheon, lark.
Mane, maze, meek, muck.
Nag, nasty, niggard.
Odd, outlaw.
Pedlar, prate.
Raid, raise, ransack, rife, rug, rump, rith.
Scant, scare, scrap, shrug, skald, skin, sky, sludge, sly, sneer, stag, swain, sway.
Tackle, tarn, their, thrall, thrive, thrust, till.
Wad, wand, weak, wherry (?), whilow, window.

V. FRENCH WORDS IN ENGLISH OF TEUTONIC ORIGIN.

"The French or Frankish language is now a Romanic dialect, and its grammar is but a blurred copy of the

grammar of Cæro. But its dictionary is full of Teutonic words, more or less Romanized to suit the pronunciation of the Roman inhabitants of Gaul.¹—MAX MÜLLER.

ambassador,	Goth. <i>and-bahts</i> , O.E. <i>ambeht</i> , O.H.Ger. <i>aripahit</i> , Lat. <i>ambactus</i> , a servant, O.Fr. <i>ambassadeur</i> .
arquebuss,	Ger. <i>hakenbüchse</i> , Dutch <i>haak-bus</i> , O.Fr. <i>harquebuse</i> , Fr. <i>arquebuse</i> .
attire,	O.E. <i>tir</i> , O.H.Ger. <i>ziari</i> , Ger. <i>zier</i> , O.Fr. <i>tire</i> .
baldric,	M.H.Ger. <i>balderich</i> , girdle, belt, O.F. <i>baldrei</i> , <i>baldret</i> , <i>baudrei</i> .
balcony,	O.H.Ger. <i>palcho</i> , O.N. <i>balkr</i> , M.Lat. <i>balco</i> , Fr. <i>balcon</i> , Eng. <i>balk</i> .
belfry,	Mid.H.Ger. <i>bir-vrit</i> , <i>bër-vrit</i> , M.Lat. <i>berfredus</i> , <i>helfredus</i> , O.Fr. <i>berfroît</i> , <i>belefroî</i> , a watch-tower.
bivouac,	O.H.Ger. <i>bi-wacha</i> , O.Fr. <i>bivouac</i> , <i>bivouac</i> .
brand, brandish,	O.N. <i>brandr</i> , O.E. <i>brand</i> , sword, O.Fr. <i>brant</i> .
chamberlain,	O.H.Ger. <i>kamarling</i> , O.Fr. <i>chambreleuc</i> , <i>chambre-lain</i> .
choice,	Goth. <i>kiusan</i> , O.E. <i>cēosan</i> , Ger. <i>kiesen</i> , Fr. <i>choisir</i> , to choose.
dance,	Ger. <i>tanz</i> , O.N. <i>dans</i> , O.Fr. <i>danse</i> , <i>dance</i> .
enamel,	O.N. <i>smelta</i> , Ger. <i>schmelzen</i> , to melt, whence M.Lat. <i>smaltum</i> , It. <i>smalto</i> , O.Fr. <i>esmail</i> , <i>esmail</i> .
eschew,	O.H.Ger. <i>sciuhan</i> , Ger. <i>scheuen</i> , O.Fr. <i>eschiver</i> , <i>eschiver</i> .
gathish,	O.H.Ger. <i>warnōn</i> , O.E. <i>wearnian</i> , to warn; O.Fr. <i>warnir</i> , <i>guarnir</i> , provide, supply.
guard,	O.H.Ger. <i>wart</i> , O.E. <i>weard</i> , O.Fr. <i>garde</i> .
guerdonf,	M.Latin <i>wider-donum</i> , a hybrid compound from O.H.Ger. <i>widar</i> , against, back, again, and Lat. <i>donum</i> , the whole being formed after O.H.Ger. <i>widar-lān</i> , O.E. <i>wiðer-lēan</i> , a recompense.
guile,	O.E. <i>wille</i> , O.F. <i>guile</i> , <i>guille</i> .
guise,	O.E. <i>wise</i> , O.H.Ger. <i>wisa</i> ; modern Eng. <i>wise</i> (as in <i>likewise</i>), O.Fr. <i>guise</i> ; cp. O.Fr. <i>desguiser</i> = to disguise.
hamlet,	Goth. <i>haims</i> , O.E. <i>hām</i> , home, Fr. <i>hamel</i> , <i>hameau</i> .
hauberk,	O.H.Ger. <i>hals-berc</i> , O.E. <i>leals-beorg</i> , O.Fr. <i>hal-berc</i> , <i>hauberc</i> , <i>haubert</i> .
herald,	O.H.Ger. <i>heri-walt</i> , <i>heriolt</i> , O.Fr. <i>heralt</i> , <i>heraut</i> .
lansquenet,	Ger. <i>landsknecht</i> .
lecher,	O.H.Ger. <i>lecchōn</i> , O.E. <i>liccian</i> , to lick, O.Fr. <i>lichier</i> , <i>lecher</i> , whence O.Fr. <i>lecheor</i> , a lecher. ¹

¹ *Relish* is from the same source.

march, marches,	O. H. Ger. <i>marcha</i> , O. E. <i>marc</i> (boundary, border), O. Fr. <i>marce</i> , <i>marche</i> .
marshal,	O. H. Ger. <i>marah-scalh</i> (<i>mārah</i> , horse, <i>scalh</i> , ser- vant); O. Fr. <i>marescal</i> , <i>mareschal</i> .
pouch, poke, pocket,	O. E. ^{ap} <i>pocca</i> , <i>poha</i> , bag, Fr. <i>poche</i> .
poach,	O. E. <i>cocer</i> , O. H. Ger. <i>kohhar</i> , Ger. <i>köcher</i> , O. Fr.
quiver,	<i>coudre</i> , <i>cuivre</i> .
rifle (spoil, rob),	O. N. <i>hrifa</i> , O. Fr. <i>riffler</i> .
ring, harangue,	O. H. Ger. <i>hring</i> , <i>ring</i> .
range, arrange,	O. H. Ger. <i>raubōn</i> , O. E. <i>reafian</i> , O. Fr. <i>rober</i> .
rob,	O. H. Ger. <i>roub</i> , O. E. <i>reaf</i> , Fr. <i>robe</i> .
robe,	O. H. Ger. <i>sazzan</i> , to put in possession, Ger. <i>setzen</i> ,
seize,	O. Fr. <i>saisir</i> , <i>seisir</i> .
seneschal,	O. Fr. <i>senescal</i> , seneschal, no doubt from a Teutonic word <i>sina-skalks</i> (old <i>servant</i>), which, however, is not found.
skiff,	O. E. <i>scip</i> , Ger. <i>schiff</i> , Fr. <i>esquif</i> , whence equip, O. Fr. <i>esquiper</i> .
slate,	connected with Eng. <i>slit</i> , O. H. Ger. <i>slīzan</i> ; O. Fr. <i>esclat</i> , O. E. <i>sklat</i> , slate.
spy (to),	O. H. Ger. <i>spēhōn</i> , O. Fr. <i>espier</i> .
towel,	O. H. Ger. <i>dwahila</i> , <i>twahila</i> , O. Fr. <i>toialle</i> , <i>tuialle</i> .
wage, gage,	O. E. <i>wed</i> , Goth. <i>wadi</i> , O. H. Ger. <i>wetti</i> , M. Lat. <i>vadium</i> .
wait (await),	O. H. Ger. <i>wahta</i> , Ger. <i>waht</i> , O. Fr. <i>waite</i> , <i>gaite</i> , <i>guaite</i> , watch; O. H. Ger. <i>wahten</i> , O. Fr. <i>gaiter</i> , <i>guaiter</i> , to wait.
wicket,	O. E. <i>wlc</i> , O. N. <i>vík</i> , bight, haven, O. Fr. <i>wiket</i> , <i>gwischet</i> .

APPENDIX II

OUTLINES OF O. AND MIDDLE E. ACCIDENCE

DECLENSION OF SUBSTANTIVES, &c.

FIRST PERIOD OF THE LANGUAGE.

(A.) Vowel Stems.¹

I. MASCULINE.

dag, day ; *hierde* (*hirde*, *hyrde*), shepherd ; *giest* (*gest*, *gyst*), guest ;
sunu, son ; *wudu*, wood.

	<i>a</i> STEM.	<i>ja</i> STEM.	<i>i</i> STEM.	<i>u</i> STEM.	
Sing.	N. dag	hierde	giest	sunu	wudu
	G. dages	hierdes	giestes	sunu	wuda (wudes)
	D. daga	hierde	gieste	sunu	wuda
	A. dag	hierde	giest	sunu	wudu
	I. dag-e	hierde	gieste		
Pl.	N. dagas	hierdas	giestas	sunu(s)	wuda(s)
	G. daga	hierda	giesta	sunu	wuda
	D. dagum	hierdum	giestum	sunum	wudum
	A. dagas	hierdas	giestas	sunu(s)	wuda(s)

GOTHIC.

Sing. ..	N. dags	hairdeis	gasts	sunus	
	G. dagis	hardeis	gastis	sunaus	
	D. daga	hairdja	gasta	sunau	
	A. dag	hairdi	gast	sunu	

¹ These are arranged according to their *original* stem-endings, in *-a* (older *-o*), *-i*, *-u* ; *dag* (orig. stem, *daga*), *giest* (orig. stem, *gasti*), *sunu*, &c.

	<i>a</i> STEM.	<i>ja</i> STEM.	<i>i</i> STEM.	<i>u</i> STEM.
Pl.	N. dagôs	hairdjôs	gasteis'	sunjus
	G. dagê	hairdjê	gastê	suniwê
	D. dagam	hairdjam	gastim	sunum
	A. dagans	hairdjans	gastins	sununs

2. FEMININE.

gifu, gift ; *dæd*, deed ; *hand* ; *duru*, door.

	<i>a</i> STEM.	<i>i</i> STEM.	<i>u</i> STEM.
Sing.	N. gifu	dæd	hand duru
	G. gife	dæde	handa dura (dure)
	D. gifte	dæde	handa dura, duru
	A. gife	dæd(e)	hand duru
	I. gife	dæde	
Pl.	N. gifa	dæda	handa
	G. gifa, gifena	dæda	handa
	D. gifum	dædum	handum
	A. gifa	dæda	handa

GOTHIC.

Sing.	...	N. giba	dêds	handus
		G. gibôs	dêðais	handaus
		D. gibai	dêðai	handau
		A. giba	dêd	handu
Pl.	...	N. gibôs	dêðeiþ	handjus
		G. gibôþ	dêðe	handiwe
		D. gibôm	dêðim	handum
		A. gibôs	dêðins	handuns

3. NEUTER.

worð ; *fæt*, vat ; *cynn*, kinn , *gedyre*, door-stave ; no *-u* stems.

	<i>a</i> STEM.	<i>ja</i> STEM.	<i>i</i> STEM.
Sing.	...	N. word	fæt cynn gedyre
		G. wordes	fættes cynnes gedyres
		D. worde	fæt cynne gedyre
		A. wotde	fæt cynn gedyre
		I. wordę	fæte cynne gedyre
Pl.	...	N. word	fatu cynn gedyru
		G. worda	fatu cynna gedyra
		D. wordam	fatum cynnum gedyrum
		A. word }	fatu cynn gedyru

		GOTHIC.	
		a STEM.	ja STEM.
Sing.	N.	waurd.	kuni
	G.	waurdis	kunjis
	D.	waurda	kunja
	A.	waurd	kuni
Pl.	N.	waurda	kunja
	G.	waurdê	kunjê
	D.	waurdam	kunjam
	A.	waurda	kunja

(B.) Consonant Stems.

(1) -N STEMS.

		MASC.	FEM.	NEUT.
Sing.	N.	hapa	tunge	éape
	G.	hanan	tungan	éagan
	D.	hanan	tungan	éagan
	A.	hanan	tungan	éage
Pl.	N.	hanan	tungan	éagan
	G.	hanena	tungena	éagena
	D.	hanum	tungum	éagum
	A.	hanan	tungan	éagan

GOTHIC.

Sing.	N.	hana	tuggô	augô
	G.	hanitis	tuggôns	augins
	D.	hanin	tuggôn	augin
	A.	hanan	tuggôn	augô
Pl.	N.	hanans	tuggôns	augôna
	G.	hananê	tuggônô	auganê
	D.	hanam	tuggôm	augam
	A.	hanans	tuggôns	augôna

(2) -R STEMS.

	SING.		PL.
N. fæder	brôðor	fæderas	brôðru
G. fæder	fæderes brôþor	fædera	brôðra
D. fæder	brêðer	fæderum	brôðrum
A. fæder	brôðor	fæðtras	brôðru

GOTHIC.

SING.	PL.
N. brôþar	brôþrjus
G. brôþrs	brôþrê
D. brôþr	brôþrum
A. brôþar	brôþrur/s

VARIOUS CONS.-STEMS, FORMING PLURALS BY VOWEL CHANGE.

(1) fem. :—

Bōc, book, *burh*, borough *hūs*, louse, *mūs*, mouse, *gēs*, goose ;
 plurals (nom. and acc.) :—
Ʒēc, *byrig*, *lȳs*, *mȳs*, *gēs*.

(2) masc. :—

Fōt, foot, *tōð*, tooth, *man*, man ; plurals :—
Fēt, *tēð*, *men*.

This vowel change occurs also in the dative singular, and is due to the presence of an *i* in the lost flexional syllable of the forms in which it is found ; the plurals were originally *bōkiz*, *burgiz*, etc.

SECOND PERIOD.

I. VOWEL DECLENSION.

In the Second period of the language traces of the original vowel-stems disappear, and substantives once belonging to this class are declined according to gender. In the following table the case-suffixes are given for comparison with the older forms :—

		MASC.	FEM.	NEUT.
Sing.	N.	—	—	—
	G.	-es	-e	-es
	D.	-c	-e	-c
	A.	—	-e (-en)	—
Pl.	N.	-es	-e, -en (-es)	-es
	G.	-c, -en, -ene (-es)	-e, -en, -ene (-es)	-e, -en, -cne (-es)
	D.	-cn, -c (-es)	-en, -e (-es)	-en, -e (-es)
	A.	-es	-e, -en (-es)	-es

(1) *Gen. sing. fem.*—Some few feminine substantives form their genitives (like masc. and neuters) in *-es*, instead of *-e*.

(2) *Nom. plural fem.*—The suffix *-es* begins to replace *-e*, *-en*, as *dedes*, *mihtes*, *sinnes*, &c.

(3) *Nom. plural neuter.*—Many neuters, originally having no suffix in the plural, now take *-es*, as *londes*, *huses*, *wordes*, *workes*, *things*, though the original uninflected forms are

frequently met with as late as the middle of the fourteenth century.

Deer, sheep, horse, &c., as in modern English, remain without inflexion.

Many substantives originally forming the plural in *-u*, have *-e* or *-en* (and sometimes *-es*), as *richen, riche* (kingdoms), *trewe, trewen* (trees), &c.

(4) *Gen. plural.*—The old suffix *-a* is now represented by *-e, -en*; and also by *-ene* (the gen. plural of *n* declension).

(5) *Dat. plural.*—The old suffix *-um* has become *-en* and *-e*, and occasionally *-es*.

II. -N DECLENSION

		MASC.	FEM.	NEUT.
Sing.	N.	-e	-e	-e
	G.	-en, -e (-es)	-en, -e (-es)	-en, -e (-es)
	D.	-en, -e	-en, -e	-en, -e
	A.	-en, -e	-en, -e	-e
Pl.	N.	-en, -e (-es)	-en, -e (-es)	-en, -e (-es)
	G.	-ene (-en)	-ene (-en)	-ene (-en)
	D.	-en, -e	-en, -e	-en, -e
	A.	-en, -e (-es)	-en, -e (-es)	-en, -e (-es)

In the gen. plural *-enen* sometimes occurs for *-ene*.

III. -R DECLENSION.

(1) *Brother, moder, dokter, suster*, have no inflexion in the genitive singular. *Fader* and *faderes* (gen. sing.) are found in writers of this period.

(2) The *nom. plurals* are in *-e, -en*, or *-es*, as *brethre, brothre, sustre, dohtre, &c.*; *brethren, brothren, dohtren, dehtren, sustren, &c.*; *faderes, brothres, dohtres, sostres, &c.*

(3) The *gen. plural -ene* (or *ene*) sometimes disappears altogether. "*His dohter namen*" = the names of his daughters (Lazamon)

- (4) The *dat. plural* ends in *-en, -e* (and sometimes *-es*).

NOTE:—In the *Ormulum* *-es* occurs as the genitive singular of substantives of all genders.

The *nom. plural* is ordinarily *-es*, and even *deor* (deer) makes plural *deores*.

The *gen. plural* ends mostly in *-es*, rarely in *-e*, as “*aller kinge king*” = king of all kings.

IV. PLURALS FORMED BY VOWEL CHANGE.

* *Fēt* (*fet*), *men*, &c.; *bēc* (*bæc*) is occasionally found side by side with *bokes*.

THIRD PERIOD.

I. FORMATION OF THE PLURAL.

- (1) *-es* (*-is, -ys*), without distinction of gender.

(2) Very many plurals in *-en, -n*, are still preserved, representing (a) old plurals in *-an* of the *n* declension, (b) plurals originally ending in *-a, -u*—(a) *chirchen* (churches); *ezen, eien* (eyes); *ben* (bees); *fon* (foes); *oxen*, &c.; (b) *honden* (hands), *sinnen* (sins), *develen* (devils), *heveden* (heads), *modren* (mothers), *sostren* (sisters), *broþren, ken* (kin), &c.

Plurals in *e* are not rare, as *blostme* (blossoms), *dede* (deeds), *mile* (miles), *childre* (and *childer*), *breþre* (*breþer*), &c.

(3) Many words have no plural inflexion, as *hus, hous, hors, schep, deer, pound, her* (hair); but *horses, poundes*, and *haire*s occur in this period.

(4) *Plurals formed by vowel change*:—*fet, tep, ges, ky, hend* (hands).

2. CASE ENDINGS.

(1) Case-endings are reduced to two, genitive and dative.

(2) The *gen. sing.* for the most part ends in *-es* (*-is*, *-ys*); it is not always added to feminine substantives, as "the *queene fader*" (Robt. of Gloucester, l. 610); "the *empresse sone*" (Ib. l. 9708).

(3) The *gen. plural* ends in *-es*, and sometimes in *-ene* (*-en*),¹ as *clerkene*, of clerks, *monkene*, of monks (Robt. of Gloucester).

(4) The *dative sing.* is often denoted by a final *-e*: nom. *god*, dat. *gode*.

(5) The *dative plural* is mostly like the nom. plural.

FOURTH PERIOD.

I. FORMATION OF THE PLURAL.

(1) The plural suffix is *-es* (*-is*, *-ys*, *-us*).

In Romance words *-s*, *-z*, occurs for *-es*, &c.

(2) Plurals in *-en* are (a) *ashen*, *been* (bees), *eyen*, *hosen*, *oxen*,² *pesen*,³ *shoon*, *ton* (toes), belonging to *n* declension, (b) *sustren*, *daugh:ren*, *brethren* (*r* declension); (c) *children*, *calveren*, *eyren* (eggs), *lambren*⁴ (with *r* inserted before *en*), originally forming plural in *-u*; *kin*, *ken*, *kien* for *cy*, *ky* *dezter* (daughters).

(3) Some neuter plurals have no *s*, as *zeer*, *heer* (hair) *hors*, *hous*, *scheep*, *þwunde*, *swyn*, *thing*.

(4) After numerals the plural inflexion is often dropped.

(5) *Plurals with vowel change*:—*fet*, *gees*, *lys*, *mys*, *mees*, *men*, &c.

¹ This suffix is unknown in the Northern dialect.

² *Oxis* occurs in Wicliffe, Luc. xvii. 7.

³ *Pesen* occurs in Piers Plowman.

⁴ *Calves*, *egges*, and *lambes* are also met with.

2. CASE ENDINGS.

- (1) The *gen. sing.* ends in *-es* (*-is*, *-ys*), *-s*.
- (2) The *gen. plural* terminates in *-es*.
- (3) The old *genitive plural* suffix *-ene* is still met with, as *childrenē, clerkene, kyngene* (Piers Plowman).¹

ADJECTIVES.

FIRST PERIOD.

I. STRONG (or INDEFINITE) DECLENSION.

		MASC.	FEM.	NEUT.
Sing.	N.	blind	blindu	blind
	G.	blindes	blindre	blindes
	D.	blindum	blindre	blindum
	A.	blindne	blinde	blind
	I.	blinde	—	blind
Pl.	N.	blinde	blinde	blindu
	G.	blindra	blindra	blindra
	D.	blindum	blindum	blindum
	A.	blinde	blinde	blindu

GOTHIC.

Sing.	N.	blinds	blindā	blind(ata)
	G.	blindis	blindaižōs	blindis
	D.	blindamma	blindai	blindamma
	A.	blindana	blindā	blind(ata)
Pl.	N.	blindai	blindōs	blindā
	G.	blindaizē	blindaizō	blindaizē
	D.	blindaim	blindaim	blindaim
	A.	blindans	blindōs	blindā

Very rarely used by Chaucer.

2. WEAK (or DEFINITE) DECLENSION.

	MASC.	FEM.	NEUT.
Sing.	N. blinda	blindē	blinde
	G. blindan	blindan	blindan
	D. blindan	blindan	blindan
	A. blindan	blindan	blinde'

MASC., FEM., and NEUT. " "

Pl.	N.	blindan
	G.	blindena
	D.	blindum
	A.	blindan

GOTHIC.

	MASC.	FEM.	NEUT.
Sing.	N. blinda	blindô	blindô
	G. blindins	blindôns	blindins
	D. blindin	blindôn	blindin
	A. blindan	blindôn	blindô
Pl.	N. blindans	blindôns	blindôna
	G. blindanê	blindônô	blindanê
	D. blindam	blindôm	blindam
	A. blindans	blindôns	blindôna

SECOND PERIOD.

1. STRONG DECLENSION.

	MASC.	FEM.	NEUT.
Sing.	N. blind	blind	blind
	G. blindes	blindre (blinde)	blindes
	D. blinde	blindre (blinde)	blinde
	A. blindne	blinde	blind
Pl. of all gend.	N. blinde		
	G. blindere (blinde)		
	D. blinden (blind)		
	A. blinde.		

2. In the *weak* or *definite declension* *-an* becomes (1) *-en*, (2) *e*.

All cases of the *sing.* are often denoted by the final *e*.

The plural ends in *-en* or *-e*.

In the *Ornulum* all the older inflexions of both declensions are represented by *e*.

THIRD PERIOD.

In the Third period the older adjectival inflexions are represented by a final *-e*, and even this sometimes is dropped.

In Robert of Gloucester and the *Ayenbite* we sometimes find the accusative in *-ne* of the strong declension. In the *Ayenbite* we find dative plural in *-en*, in indefinites like *one*, *other*.

The plural of adjectives (mostly of Romanic origin) sometimes terminates in *-es*, especially when the adjective follows the noun, as *wateres principales*. Robert of Gloucester has "fourc *godes* sones," "the *godes knyȝtes*."

FOURTH PERIOD.

A final *e* marks (a) the plural, (b) the definite form, of the adjective.

Plurals in *s* are common, as in the previous period.

PRONOUNS.

I. Personal Pronouns.

FIRST PERIOD.

	FIRST PERSON.	SECOND PERSON.
Sing.	N. <i>ic</i> G. <i>mín</i> D. <i>mé</i> A. <i>méc, mé</i>	<i>ðu</i> <i>þín</i> <i>ðé</i> <i>ðec, ðé</i>
Pl.	N. <i>wé</i> G. <i>ús, úre</i> D. <i>ús</i> A. <i>ús, úsic</i>	<i>gé</i> <i>éower</i> <i>éow</i> <i>éow, éowic</i>
Dual	N. <i>wit</i> G. <i>uncer</i> D. <i>unc</i> A. <i>uncit, unc</i>	<i>git</i> <i>incer</i> <i>incer</i> <i>incit, inc</i>

GOTHIC.

		FIRST PERSON	SECOND PERSON.	
Sing.	...	N. ik	pū	
		G. meina	peina	
		D. mis	pus	
		A. mik	puk	
Pl.	..	N. weis	jus	
		G. unsara	izwara	
		D. unsis	izwis	
		A. unsis	izwis	
Dual	...	N. wit	— ¹	
		G. ugkara (=unkara)	igkwara	
		D. ugkis	igkwis	
		A. ugkis	igkwis	
		SECOND PERIOD.	THIRD PERIOD.	FOURTH PERIOD.
Sing.	..	N. Ich, ic, ihc	ich, ik, I	ich, ik, I
		G. min	—	—
		D. me	me	me
		A. me	me	me
Pl.	...	N. we	we	we
		G. ure	ure	—
		D. us, ous	us, ous	us
		A. us, ous	us, ous	us
Dual	...	N. wit	—	—
		G. unker	—	—
		D. unc, upk	—	—
		A. unc	—	—
Sing.	...	N. þu, þou	þu, þou ²	þou
		G. þiū	—	—
		D. } þe	þe	þe
		A. }		
Pl.	...	N. 3e	3e, yha, yc	3e, yc
		G. eoure, eur, ewr, 13ure	—	—
		B. cow, cw	} 3ou, yhou, ou	you, 3ow, vov
		A. ow, 3uw, 3eƿw		
Dual	...	N. 3it	—	—
		G. inker, 3unker	unker	—
		D. } inc, gunc	—	—
		A. }	—	—

¹ Wanting.² In some Southern texts we find þe = þou.þe miȝt be proute.—*Beves of Hamptoun* (E.E.T.S.), l. 531.And in þe letter þe schelt saie.—*Ibid.* 1233. Cp. also 1506, 3728.þow art nouȝt wis ase þe holdest þe.—*Reinbroun*, 20, 5.Sire, þe miȝt næ leuc.—*Ibid.* 47, 3. Cp. *Ayrenbite of Inwit*, p. 54.

The dual is found as late as 1280, as in *Havelok the Dane*.

The older genitives *min*, *thin*, as early as Lazzamon's time began to be employed only as possessive adjectives; *ure*, *eowre*, *eouer*, *zure*, are mostly formed with indefinite pronouns, as *ure ech* = each of us, *zure nan* = none of us; but the partitive form *ech of us* is also in use at this period.

For other changes see PERSONAL PRONOUNS, pp. 176 ff.

II. Pronouns of the Third Person.

FIRST PERIOD.

	MASC.	FEM.	NEUT
Sing.	N. hé G. his D. him A. hine	hé hire hire hi	hit his him hit
Pl. (of all genders)	N. hí (hig) G. hira (heora) D. hira (heom) A. hi (hig)		

Gothic has no *hi* stem.

SECOND PERIOD.

THIRD PERIOD.

FOURTH PERIOD.

Masc.	N. He, ha G. His D. Him A. Hine, hin, him	N. He, ha, a His Him Him (hine)	N. He, a His Him Him
Fem.	N. Hi, heo, hie, she, ze, seo, zho, sca ¹ G. Hire, heore, here D. Hire, heore, here A. Ili, heo, hie, hire (his, hes, es)	N. Heo, hi, sco, ¹ she, zy, sge Hire Hire Ili (his, is), hire	N. Huc, heo, ho, sche, scho Hire (hir) Hire (hir) Hire
Neut.	N. Hit (it) G. His D. Him A. Hit (it)	N. Hit (it) His ² Him Hit (it)	N. Hit (it) His, hit Him (it) Hit (it)

¹ *Sca* occurs in Saxon Chronicle (Stephen); *sco*, *scho* is a Northern form; *sche* a Midland variety of it; and *ho* is West Midland.

² Mostly used adjectively.

SECOND PERIOD.	THIRD PERIOD.	FOURTH PERIOD.
Pl. N. His, heo, hei, he, ¹ ha, þeʒʒ, þei, þai	Hi, hii, heo, hæne, he, thei, thai	Hii, ² þe, þai, tha (hii), a
G. Hire, heore, here, theʒʒre	Heore, here, her, hir, hare, þair	Here, her, hir, thair, thar
D. Heom, hem, ham, þeʒʒm	Heom, hem, ham, þam, hom	Hem, tham, hom
A. Hi, heo, hie, heom, ʒam (his, hes)	Hi, hii, hem (hise, is), þam, hom	Hem, tham, þem

(1) In the Third period the gen. plural is used with indefinite pronouns, as *here non* (none of them), *here eyther* (each of them), &c.

(2) The accusatives (singular and plural) begin in the Second period to be replaced by dative forms, but the old accusative (*hine*) is found in the *Ayenbite* (1340), and is still in use in the South of England under the form *-en*.

(3) The Northern dialects (and those with Northern peculiarities) replace the plural of the stem *hi* by the plural of the definite article.

(4) In the South of England *a = he* is still preserved. In Lancashire *ho* is used for *she*.

III. Reflexive Pronouns.

(1) In the First period *silf* (self) was declined as an adjective along with personal pronouns, as—

N. *Ic silfa* ; G. *min silfes* ; D. *me silfum* ; A. *mec (me) silfe*, &c.

(2) Sometimes the dative of the personal pronoun was added to the nom. of *silf*, as *ic me silf* ; *ðu ðe silf* ; *he him silf* ; *wē us silfe* ; *ge eow silfe* ; *hi him silfe*.

(3) *Silf* also stands with a substantive, as *God silf* = God himself.

¹ *Hie* and *he* are East Midland forms ; *hæne*, Southern (used by Trevisa).

² Rare

(4) With a demonstrative, *silf* was declined according to the weak or definite declension, as *se silfa* = the same.

(5) In the Second period (as in La3.) the genitive shows a tendency to replace the dative, as *mi silf* for *me silf*, but it is not common; and in all other cases the old form is preserved.

(6) In the Third and Fourth periods *mi self*, *thi self*, *our self*, &c. become more frequently used: Wickliffe has instances of the older forms, as *we us silf*, *3e 3ou self*, as well as of *we our self*, *3e 3oure self*. *His self* occurs in Northern English of the Third period.

(7) *Self* is sometimes lengthened to *selven* in the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries, as *I miselven*, *he him selven* (Chaucer).

IV. Adjective Pronouns.

(1) The possessives in the First period—*min* (my), *ðin* (thy), *his* (his, its), *hire* (her), *ure* (our), *ewer* (your), *hira*, *heora* (their), *uncer* (our two), *incer* (your two).

Sin is found in poetry as a reflexive possessive of the third person.

(2) In the Second period the possessives are.—First person, *min* (sing.), *unker* (dual), *ure* (plural). Second person, *thin* (sing.), *inker*, *3unker* (dual), *ed3ure*, *eoure*, *3ure* (plural). Third person, *his*, *hire* (sing.), *hirc*, *here*, *heore*, *the33re* (plural).

Min is thus declined:—

FIRST PERIOD.			SECOND PERIOD		
	MASC.	FEM.	MASC.		FEM.
Sing. ... N.	<i>min</i>	<i>mín</i>	<i>min</i> , <i>mi</i>		<i>mine</i> , <i>mín</i> , <i>rai</i>
G.	<i>mines</i>	<i>mínra</i>	<i>mines</i> , <i>min</i>		<i>mirc</i> , <i>mine</i> , <i>hín</i> , <i>mi</i>
D.	<i>minum</i>	<i>mínre</i>	<i>minc</i> , <i>mín</i> , <i>mi</i>		<i>mire</i> , <i>mine</i> , <i>min</i> , <i>mi</i>
A.	<i>minne</i>	<i>míne</i>	<i>minne</i> , <i>minc</i> , <i>min</i> , <i>mi</i>		<i>mine</i> , <i>min</i> , <i>mi</i>
Pl. ... N.	<i>mine</i>		<i>mine</i> , <i>min</i> , <i>mi</i>		
G.	<i>mínra</i>		<i>mire</i> , <i>mine</i>		
D.	<i>mínun</i>		<i>minnen</i> , <i>mine</i> , <i>min</i>		
A.	<i>mine</i>				

Thin is similarly declined.

Ure is declined as follows in the First period :—

	MASC.	NEUT.	NEUT.
Sing.	N. úser, úre	úser, úre	úser, úre
	G. úseres, ússes, úres	úserre, ússe, úrre	same as masc
	D. úserum, ússum, úrum	úserre, ússe, úrre	
	A. úserne, úrne	úser, ússe, úre	úser, úre
Pl.	N. úšere, ússe, úre	—	úser, úre, &c.
	G. úsera, ússa, úre	—	same as masc
	D. úserum, ússum, úrum	—	„
	A. úsere, ússe, úre	—	úser, úre

In the Second period we sometimes find *ure* and *cower* (*zure*) inflected like adjectives of the strong declension, as “*Ures formes faderes gult*” = the guilt of our first father (Moral Ode).

(a) As *mine* and *thine* are the plural of *min* and *thin*, so in the Second and Third periods *hise* is the plural of *his*.

Hire (her) is generally uninflected. Lazamon has plural *hires*, as “*hires leores*” = her cheeks.

(c) In the *Ormulum* we find genitive *thezzres*, as “*till e33perr þe33res herrte*” = to the hearts of them both.

(3) In the Third period the dual forms disappear, and the possessives are—*min*, *thin*, *his*, *hire*, *our*, *oure*, *zoure*, *here*, *thair*; absolute possessives—*oures*, *urs*; *zoures*, *yhoures*; *thaires*, *thairs*, as well as *oure*, *ure*; *zoure*, *here*. In some southern text we find *me* = *mi*, *þe*, *þi* :—

Beves of Hamptoun, ll. 1128 (*me fader*), 2283 (*me broþer*), 1272 (*þe lord*), 1422 (*þe fet*).

Reinbroun, ll. 13, 7 (*ne chaumber*), 19, 7 (*me beste consailer*), 19, 8 (*þe per*), 20, 10 (*þe consaile*).

The plurals *mine*, *thine*, *hise*, &c. are in use.

(4) In the Fourth period we find plural *hise*; and *oures*, *youres*, *heres*, *hores* (theirs), are more commonly used than in the Third period.

V. Demonstrative Pronouns.

FIRST PERIOD.

		MASC.	FEM.	NEUT.
Sing.	N.	se	séo	ðæt
	G.	ðæs	ðære	same as masc
	D.	ðám, þám	ðære	"
	A.	ðane, þone	ðá	ðæt
	I.	ðý, þé	ðá	same as masc
Pl. (of all genders)	N.	ðá		
	G.	ðára, ðára		
	D.	ðám, ðám		
	A.	ðá		

GOTHIC.

		MASC.	FEM.	NEUT.
Sing.	N.	sa	sô	þata
	G.	þis	þizôs	as masc.
	D.	þamma	þizai	"
	A.	þana	þô	þata
Pl.	N.	þai	þôs	þô
	G.	þizê	þizô	as masc.
	D.	þaim	þaim	"
	A.	þans	þôs	þô

In the SECOND PERIOD we find *se* replaced by *the*; and often all inflexions are dropped, so that we get an uninflected *the* as in Modern English.

MASCULINE.

<i>Singular.</i>	N.	þe, þa
	G.	þæs, þas, þes, þeos, þis, þe
	D.	þaif, þon, þane, þone, þonne, þonne, þen, þa, þe
	A.	þene, þane, þæne, þene, þanne, þone, þon, þe
	I.	þe

The old Kentish dialect of the thirteenth century is more archaic than other Southern dialects, and has *se* (m.), *sí* (fem.), *thet*, *that* (n.).

"Nu lordinges þis is þe miracle þet þet gospel of te dai us telþ. ac great is þe tokningge. *Se* lepius signifieth þo sennulle men. *si* lepre þo sennen. þet scab bitokned þo litte sennet, *si* lepre betokned þo grete sennen þet bieth dialliche."

"This is *si* glorius miracle."

"This is *si* signifiante of the miracle."

"þo seide þe lord to his sergant."

"Of þo holi gos; in þa time."¹

FEMININE.

Singular.

N. þeo, þa, þie, þe, þo

G. þære, þære, þere, þer, þe

D. þare, þare, þere, þe

A. þa, þeo, þe, þo

NEUTER.

Singular. N. and A. þat, þæt, þet, þe

G. and D. as masculine

Plural.

N. þa, þo, þaie, þe

G. þare, þere, þer

D. þan, þon, þen, þane, þæn, þeon, þa, þe

A. þaie, þe, þe

In the *Ormulum* and other Midland writers the gender of *that* is forgotten, and it is used as a demonstrative pronoun as at present.

In the THIRD PERIOD the article is for the most part flexionless in the singular: though Southern writers, as Robert of Gloucester, Dan Michel (in *Ayenbite*), &c. preserve some of the older forms, as acc. masc. *tha ne*, *the-n*.

"Zueche yeares d. iueþ þane dycvel uram þe herte as þet weter cachcheþ þane hond out of þe kechene."—*Ayenbite*, p. 171²

The Kentish of 1340 also preserves the fem. *þo*.

The fem. gen. and dat. *thare* (*ther*) is employed by Shoreham, as "*thare* saule galle" = the 'gall of the soul' (Shoreham's Poem 3, p. 92); "one *thare* crybbe" (Ib. p. 157).

¹ See *Kentish Sermons*, in O.E. Miscellany (ed. Morris).

² *herte* is fem.

The older dative *-n* (O.E. *-n*) is preserved in such expressions as "for *tho* nonce" (Middle E. *for þan anes*) : cp. Middle E. *atten ende* = *at then ende* (Robt. of Gloucester); "*atter spousynge*" (Shoreham, p. 57); *atter* = *at ther* = at the (sem.).

The plural forms in the THIRD PERIOD are *þo*, *þeo*, *þa*,¹ *þai*,¹ which are also used for the plural of *that* : e.g. of *þo*, of *þa*, to *þo* = of those, to those.

In the FOURTH PERIOD the plural *þo* is still in use ; but the singular is uninflected.

That, plural *tho* (=those), are demonstratives.

Skelton uses *tho* = those : "Alle *tho* that were on my partye."

ðes, *ðeos*, *ðis*, this.

FIRST PERIOD.

	M.	F.	N.
<i>Singular.</i>			
N.	<i>ðes</i>	<i>ðeos</i>	<i>ðis</i>
G.	<i>ðises</i>	<i>ðisse</i>	<i>ðises</i>
D.	<i>ðisum</i>	<i>ðise</i>	<i>ðisum</i>
A.	<i>ðisne</i>	<i>ðás</i>	<i>ðis</i>
	<i>Plural.</i>		
	N.	<i>ðás</i>	
	G.	<i>ðissa</i>	
	D.	<i>ðisum</i>	
	A.	<i>ðás</i>	

In the SECOND PERIOD we find the following forms :—

	M.	F.	N.
<i>Sing.</i>			
N.	<i>þes</i> , <i>þis</i>	<i>þas</i> , <i>þeos</i> , <i>þis</i> , <i>þos</i>	<i>þis</i>
G.	<i>þisses</i> , <i>þisse</i> , <i>þis</i>	<i>þissere</i> , <i>þisse</i>	as masc.
D.	<i>þissene</i> , <i>þissen</i> , <i>þisse</i>	<i>þissere</i> , <i>þisse</i>	
A.	<i>þesne</i> , <i>þisne</i>	<i>þas</i> , <i>þæs</i>	<i>þis</i>
<i>Plural.</i>			
N. and A.	<i>þas</i> , <i>þeos</i> , <i>þos</i> , <i>þis</i> , <i>þese</i> , <i>þis</i> , <i>þise</i>		
G.	<i>þissere</i> , <i>þisse</i>		
D.	<i>þissen</i> , <i>þisse</i> , <i>þeos</i>		

In the *Ormulum*, *this* has no inflexions except plural *þise*.

¹ Northern forms.

In the THIRD PERIOD *this* is flexionless in the singular;¹ we find in the plural *thes, this, thise, these*.

In the *Ayenbite* we find in the singular nom. masc. *this*, acc. masc. *thèrne* (= *thesne*), acc. fem. *thise*, dat. *thiven, thise*.² Shoreham has dat. sing. and pl. *thysere*.³

In the FOURTH PERIOD we have sing. *this*, pl. *thise, this, thes, these*.

In the Northern dialects we find *ther, thir*, the plural of the Old Norse definite article, used for *these*³ :—

“ Alle mans lyfe casten may be
Principally in this partes thre,
Thaer *ther* to our understanding,
Bygynnyng, midward, and endyng.
Ther thre parties er thre spaces talde
Of the lyf of ilk man yhung and alde.”
HAMPOLE, *P. of C.*

It is used by James I. in his *Essayes in Poesie* (ed. Arber, p. 70):

“ *Thir* are thy workes.”

VI. Interrogative Pronouns.

FIRST PERIOD.

Hwā, who.

	MASC. AND FEM.		NEUT.
<i>Singular.</i> N.	hwā		hwæt
G.	hwæs		hwæs
D.	hwām, hwātm		hwātm
A.	hwone, hwæne		hwæt
I.	hwī		hwī
	GOTHIC.		
	MASC.	FEM.	NEUT.
N.	inwas	hwô	hwa
G.	hwis	hwizôðs	as masc.
D.	hwamma	hwizai	hwa
A.	hwana	hwô	hwê

¹ We find sometimes *thisne* acc. sing. in some Southern writers.

² Trevisa, 1357, has nom. masc. *þes*, fem. *þeos* (*þues*), pl. *þeos, þues*.

³ In the O.N. pl. *their* (masc.), *thar* (fem.), *than* (neut.); *r = s* (sign of plural).

In the SECOND PERIOD we find the following forms:—

	MASC. AND FEM.	NEUT.
<i>Singular.</i> N.	hwa, whæ, wa, wha, wo	hwat, hwet, what, whæt
G.	hwas, whes, was, whas	as masc.
D.	hwam, whan	"
A.	hwan, wan, hwam, whan, wham	hwat, whæt, &c. wham

In the *Ormulum* we find *what* used irrespective of gender, as *what* man, *what* thing, &c.

In the THIRD PERIOD the dative replaces the old accusative.

	MASC. AND FEM.	NEUT.
<i>Singular.</i> N.	wha, who, huo, wo, ho, quo	what, wat, huet, quat
G.	whas, whos, wos, quas	as masc.
D.	whom, wham, wom, quam	"
A.	whom, wham, won, whan wan, quam	whæt, huet

What is used as an adjective without inflexions.

In the FOURTH PERIOD, N. *who, what*; G. *whos, whoos, whose*; A. *whom, what*.

Hwæðer, whether, which of two.

FIRST PERIOD.

	M.	F.	N.
<i>Singular.</i> N.	hwæðer	hwæðeru	hwæðer
G.	hwæðeres	hwæðerre	as masc.
D.	hwæðerum	hwæðerre	"
A.	hwæðerne	hwæðere	hwæðer
	M. AND F.	"	N.
<i>Plural.</i> N.	hwæðerre		hwæðeru
G.	hwæðerra		—
D.	hwæðerum		—
A.	hwæðere		hwæðeru

Hwilc is declined like the strong declension of adjectives.

SECOND PERIOD.

In Lazamon we find in Text A :—

	M.	
<i>Singular.</i>	N. whilc, whulc	whūiche
	G. whulches	whulchere
	D. whulche	whūlchere
	A. whulcne	whulthe
<i>Plural.</i>	N. whulche, &c.	

In Text B we have *woch* (oblique cases *woche*).

In the *Ormulum* we have Sing. N. *whillc*, G. *whillkes*,
Plur. N. *whillke*.

In the THIRD PERIOD this pronoun is flexionless ; the pl. often has the final *e*¹ :—*whylc*, *whilch*, *whilk*, *wich*, *wuch*, *woch*, *huich* ; pl. *whilche*, *whiche*, *huiche*.

In the FOURTH PERIOD *the* is joined to *which*, as *the which* (relative).

VII. Relative Pronouns.

FIRST PERIOD.

(1) **Se** (masc.), **séo**, **sio** (fem.), **þæt** (neut.).

"Caron *se* hæfde éac þrio heafdu and *se* wæs swiðe orcald."—BOETHIUS.

"He hæfde an swiðe ánlíce wif *sio* wæs hátén Eurydice."—*Ib.*

"þa næfde he ná scipa þonng án þæt wæs þeah þre-reþre."—*Ib.*

"Se þurhwunað óð ende *se* byð hál."—*Matt. x. 26.*

(2) **ðe** with *se*, *séo*, *ðæt*, as *se-ðe*, *séo-ðe*, *ðæt-ðe* (*ðæt-te*).

"Is for-ði án Fæder *se ðe* áfre is Fæder."—ÆLFRIC, *De Fide Catholica*.

(3) **ðe** (indeclinable).

"Gesælig bið *se* mon *ðe* mæg geséon."—BOETHIUS.

"Ælc ðara *ðe* yfele ðeð, hatað ðæt léoht."—*John iii. 20.*

¹ The *Ayenbite* has dative plural in *-en*, as *huichen*.

(4) **Se ðe . . . se.**

"Se ðe brýð hæfð, *se* is brýðguma."—*John* iii. 9.

(5) **ðe** with personal pronouns, as *ðe ic* (*ic ðe*), *ðu*, *ðe*, &c.

"Ic eom Gabrihel *ic ðe* stand beforan Gode."—*Luke* i. 19.

"Fæder úre, *ðu ðe* eart on heofonum."—*Matt.* vi. 9.

(6) **ðe . . . he** = who, **ðe . . . his** = whose, **ðe . . . him** = whom.

"ðe *he* sylfa ástáh ofer sunnan up."—*Ps.* lxxvii. 4.

"ðæt næs ná éowres ðances, ac ðurh God ðe ic ðurh *his* willan hider asend wæs."—*Gen.* xlv. 8.

In the SECOND PERIOD we find—

(1) indeclinable *þe*. (2) *that, thet*, with antecedents of all genders. (3) *þe þe*, *þeo þe* (= *se þe*, *seo þe*). Cp.

(1) "Eft *se þe* dælð ælmyssam for his drihtnes lufon *se* behyt his goldhord," &c.—*O.E. Hom.* p. 300.

(2) "Eft *þe þe* deleð elmessen for his drihtnes luan: *þe* behut his goldhord."—*Ib.* p. 109.¹

(3) *þe þe* is further changed to *þe þat* and *he þat* (*he þet*). Cp.

"*Se þe* ² aihte wil holde."—*Moral Ode*, l. 55, in *O.E. Hom.* Second Series.

"*þe þet*," &c.—*Ib.* in *O.E. Hom.* First Series.

"*Se þe* her doð ani god."—*Ib.* l. 53, in *O.E. Hom.* Second Series.

"*þe þe*," &c.—*Ib.* in *O.E. Hom.* First Series.

"*He þat*," &c.—*Ib.* in *O.E. Miscellany*, latter part of the thirteenth century.

þe þe is not found in *Lazamon's Brut*.

In the *Ancren Riwele* *þe* . . . *þet* = *þe þe* . . . *þe* :

"*þe* is federleas *þet* haucð . . . vorlore þene Veder of heouene."

"*þeo* deð also *þeo* is betere þen ich am."

¹ Extract (1) is from the English of the First period, (2) of the Second period (about 1150).

² *Se þe* is borrowed from a version of the First period.

That as a relative replaced—(1) the indeclinable *ðe* ;
(2) *ðe* in *ðe ðe (se þe)*, &c.

(1) First period—

“On áne dune *ðe* is geháten Synáy.”—ÆLFRIC.

Second period—

“Uppon ane dune *þat* is þe mont of Synai.”—*O.E. Hom.* First Series, p. 86.

(2) First period—

“Swa sceal *ge* lár^u w dón *se ðe* bið,” &c.—ÆLFRIC.

Second period—

“Alswa scal *þe* larðeu *þe* *þet* bið,” &c.—*O.E. Hom.* p. 95.

(3) First period—

“An (tyd) is *se ðe* wæs buten æ.”—ÆLFRIC.

Second period—

“On is *þet* wes buten c.”—*O.E. Hom.* p. 89.

In the *Ormulum*, *þat* replaces *þe . . . þe, þe, &c.* The pl. *þa þat* = those that.

In Chaucer we find *i*hat . . . *he* = wno ; *that* . . . *his* = whose ; *that* . . . *him* = whom.

“A worthy man,
That from the tyme that he first began
To ryden out, he lovede chyvalrye.”—*Prol.* ll. 43-45

“Al were they þore hurte and namely oon
That with a spere was thirled his brest boon.”
Knights Tale, ll. 1843-44.

“I saugh today a corps yborn to churche,
That now on Monday last I saugh *him* wirche.”
Milleres Tale.

For other forms see RELATIVE PRONOUNS pp. 195 ff.

VIII. Indefinite Pronouns.

(1) **An** (one, a) is declined according to the strong declension.

• FIRST PERIOD.

	N.	M.	F.	N.
<i>Singular.</i>	án	án	án	án
G.	ánes	ánre	ánre	ánes
D.	ánum	ánre	ánre	ánum
A.	ánne, ænne	áne	áne	án
I.	áne	ánre	ánre	áne
<i>Plural</i> (of all genders).	N. áne			
G.	ánra			
D.	ánum			
A.	áne			
I.	ánum			

In the Second period we find—

	N.	M.	F.	N.
<i>Singular.</i>	an, on, a	an, on, a	an, on, a	an, a
G.	anes, ænnes, onæs	ære, are, ore	ære, are, ore	as masc.
D.	ane, anne	are, one	are, one	„
A.	ænne, enne	ane, æne	ane, æne	an, a

In the Third and subsequent periods it is uninflected.¹

(2) **Nán** (*ne + an*), no, is declined in the same way.

In the Second and Third periods it is for the most part uninflected. In Southern writers we find gen. sing., as *nonæs kunnes*, of no kind.

The *Ayenbite* has acc. *nenne*, dat. *nonon*.

(3) **Sum** (a, certain, some) is declined in the First period according to the strong declension of adjectives.

In *Lazamon* (Second period) we have the following forms :—

¹ In the *Ayenbite*, *enne*, acc. of *one*, *ane* acc. masc. and fem. of *an*, *a*; so *onen* = *anum*, dat. sing. = to *one* (used subst.): see *Ayenbite*, p. 175.

		M.		F.
Singular.	N.	sum		sum
	G.	summes		sumere
	D.	summe		sumere
	A.	sumne		sum
Plural.	N. and A.	summe		
	D.	summen		

In the *Ormulum* we find—

N. sum. G. sumess. Pl. sunæ.

In the Third and Fourth periods we find *sum*, *som*, *some*; Pl. *sune*, *summe*, *some*, used mostly in its modern acceptation.

(4) **Man** (Ger. *man*), one, is used in the First period only in the nom. In the Second and subsequent periods, we find *mon*, *man*, and *me*¹ used with a verb in the singular.

Traces of this *me* are found in Elizabethan literature :—

(5) **Ænig** (any), negative **nænig**, was declined according to the strong declension.

In the second period the *g* falls away. The following forms are used by *Lazarus* :—Sing. N: *æni*, *æi*, *ui*, *ei*; Gen. *æies*, *æi*; Dat. *æi*; Acc. *æine*, *æie*. Pl. *wi*.

In the subsequent periods we find *ani*, *any*, *ony*, *eny*, with Pl. *enie*, *anie*, &c.

(6) **Öðer**, "one of two, the first or the second,

"*Lamæch nam twá wif, öðer was genemned Ada and öðer Sella.*"—*Gn.* iv. 19.

"*Söðlice öðer is se Fæder, öðer is se sunu.*"—*ÆLFRIC, De Fide Catholica.*

In the Second period we find an *operr*, *aniz operr*, *nan operr*, *sum operr*—(*Ormulum*).

In the Third period—*that an*, *that ocn*, *the ton*, *the toon*.

¹ This form is looked upon as a shortened form of *men*.

= the one, the first; *that other*, *thet other* = the other, the second. We also find *thother* = the other.

The pl. of *oðer* is *oðre*. In the Third and Fourth periods we find *oþre* and *oþer*. In the *Ayenbite* we find pl. *oþren*.

(7) **Hwá** (any one) and **hwæt** (aught).

“And gif *hwá* tó inc *hwæt* cwyð.”—*Matt.* xi. 3

See other examples in INDEFINITE PRONOUNS.

We have also compounds, as *swylces hwæt*, *hwæt lytles* (in *Ormulum*, *littless whatt*), *elles hwæt*.

In the Second period *sumwihatt* (*Orm.*) makes its appearance.

(8) **Hwylc** (any one).

“Gif éow *hwylc* segð.”—*Mark* xiii. 21.

Cp. “þai fand e iii crossis; an was þat ilke. Bot wiste þai noȝt *quilk* was *quilk*, þe *quilk* muȝt þe þeuis be.”—*Legends of Holy Rood*, p. 113.

(9) In all periods *such* is an indefinite pronoun:—

“Be *swilcum*, and be *swilcum* þu miht onȝitan,” &c. (BOETHIUS)
= By such and such thou mayest perceive, &c.

“Whi art thou *swich* and *swich* that thou, daȝs passe the lawe.”—*Pilgrimage*, p. 78.

(10) Even *that* becomes an indefinite pronoun:—

“*Swich* a time thou didest thus, *swich* a sonedai, *swich* a moneday, thanne thou didest *that* and thanne *that*.”—*Pilgrimage*.

Cp. “Had it been

Rapier or *that* and poniard . . .

. . . I had been then your man.”—*A Cure for a Cuckold*.

(11) In “Hakluyt’s Voyages” (1589) we find *he* used indefinitely—he . . . he = *one . . . other*: “After comes *hee* and *hee*.” Cp. Chaucer’s use of *he* in *Knights Tale*, ll. 1756-1761:

“*He* rolleth under foot as doth a balle.

He soyneth on his feet with a trouchoun,

And *he* him hurtleth with his hors adoun,

He thurgh the body is hurt, and siȝthen take

Maugre *his* heed, and brought unto the stake

Another laȝ is on that other side.”

IX. Compounds.

(1) Of **hwá**:—*ge-hwá*, each, every; *æg-hwá* (= *á-ge-hwá*), every; *elles hwá* (Lat. *ali-quis*), any; *swá-hwá-swá*, whoso, whosoever; *hwæt-hwugu*, anything.

In the subsequent periods, *swá-hwá-swá* becomes (1) *hwa-swa*, *hwa-se*, (2) *whoso*, *whose*.

(2) Of **hwæðer**:—*á-hwæðer*, anyone, *áwðer*, *dðor*, *dðer* (= *á-ge-hwæðer*), *æghwæðer*, *ægðer*, *egðer*, other, either; *ge-hwæðer*, either; *n-á-hwæðer*, *náwðer*, *nówðer*, *nðer*, neither.

Later forms¹ are *owwper*, *eyper*, *ouper*, *oper* = either; *nouper*, *nouwper*, *noþer* = neither.

(3) Of **hwilc**:—*ge-whilc*, anybody; *ægwhilc*, whoever; *hwilchugu*, anyone, anything; *swá-hwilt-swá*, whosoever.

In the Second period we find *ge-hwilt* softened down to *ihwilt*.

(4) **Ælc** (= *á-ge-líc*), each all, was declined like *hwilt*.

In the Second Period we have the following forms:—

	M.	F.
Singular. N.	ælc, ech	ælc, ech
G.	ælches, alches, echas	alchere, elchere
D.	elchen, alche, eche	alchere, elchere
A.	ælcne, alcne, echne	elche, eche

We also find *ælcan* = each one, which is uninflected.

In the subsequent periods we find *ilk*, *ech*, *uch*, *ilka*, *uch a*, *ech a*, *ych a*. In the *Ayenbite* we find *echen*, after the prepositions *of*, *to*, *in*.

Æuer-ælc (every) was inflected like *ælc*, and in the Third period we find—

“*Evereches owe name*.”—*St. Brandan*, p. 3.

In the *Ayenbite* we find Sing. Acc. *evrinne*, Dat. *evrichen*.

¹ From these forms we get *either*, *other*, *or*, *nor*.

CONJUGATION OF WEAK VERBS.

FIRST PERIOD.

INDICATIVE PRESENT.		SUBJUNCTIVE PRESENT.	
SING.	PL.	SING.	PL.
(1) <i>nerie</i> ¹	<i>neriað</i>	<i>nerie</i>	<i>nerien</i>
<i>sealfie</i> ²	<i>sealfiað</i>	<i>sealfie</i>	<i>sealfien</i>
<i>nerest</i>	<i>neriað</i>	<i>nerie</i>	<i>nerien</i>
<i>sealfast</i>	<i>sealfiað</i>	<i>sealfie</i>	<i>sealfien</i>
(2) <i>neredð</i>	<i>neriað</i>	<i>nerie</i>	<i>nerien</i>
<i>sealfiað</i>	<i>sealfiað</i>	<i>sealfie</i>	<i>sealfien</i>

INDICATIVE PRETERITE.		SUBJUNCTIVE PRETERITE.	
SING.	PL.	SING.	PL.
(1) <i>nerede</i>	<i>neredon</i>	<i>nerede</i>	<i>nereden</i>
<i>sealfode</i>	<i>sealfodon</i>	<i>sealfode</i>	<i>sealfoden</i>
(2) <i>neredest</i>	<i>neredon</i>	<i>nerede</i>	<i>nereden</i>
<i>sealfodest</i>	<i>sealfodon</i>	<i>sealfode</i>	<i>sealfoden</i>
(3) <i>nerede</i>	<i>neredon</i>	<i>neredes</i>	<i>nereden</i>
<i>sealfode</i>	<i>sealfodon</i>	<i>sealfode</i>	<i>sealfoden</i>

IMPERATIVE MOOD.		INFIN.	DAT. INF.
SING.	PL.	<i>nerian</i>	<i>tó nerienne</i>
(2) <i>nera</i>	<i>neriað</i>	<i>sealfian</i>	<i>tó sealfianne</i>
<i>sealfa</i>	<i>sealfiað</i>		

PRES. P.	PASS. P.
<i>neriende</i>	<i>nered</i>
<i>sealfiende</i>	<i>sealfod</i>

GOTHIC.

INDICATIVE PRESENT.		SUBJUNCTIVE PRESENT.	
SING.	PL.	SING.	PL.
(1) <i>nasja</i>	<i>nasjam</i>	<i>nasjau</i>	<i>nasjam-ma</i>
<i>salbô</i>	<i>salbôm</i>	<i>salbô</i>	<i>salbôma</i>
(2) <i>nasjis</i>	<i>nasjiþ</i>	<i>nasjais</i>	<i>nasjaiþ</i>
<i>salbôs</i>	<i>salbôþ</i>	<i>salbôs</i>	<i>salbôþ</i>
(3) <i>nasjiþ</i>	<i>nasjand</i>	<i>nasjai</i>	<i>nasjaina</i>
<i>salbôþ</i>	<i>salbônd</i>	<i>salbô</i>	<i>salbôna</i>

¹ To save.² To salve.

INDICATIVE PRETERITE.		SUBJUNCTIVE PRETERITE.	
SING.	PL.	SING.	PL.
(1) nasida salbôda	nasidêdum salbôdêdum	nasidêajau salbôdêdjau	nasidêdeima salbôdêdeima
(2) nasidês salbôdes	nasidêdup salbôdêdup	nasidêdeis salbôdêdeis	nasidêdeip salbôdêdeip
(3) nasida salbôda	nasidêdum salbôdêdum	nasidêdi salbôdêdi	nasidêdeina salbôdêdeina
IMPERATIVE.		INFIN.	
SING.	PL.		
(2) nasei salbô	nasjip salbôp	nasjan salbôn	
		PRES. P.	PASS. P.
		nasjands salbônnds	nasjps salbôjps

CONJUGATION OF STRONG VERBS.

FIRST PERIOD.

ACTIVE VOICE.

Niman, to take.

PRES. INF.	PERF.	PL.	P.P.
niman	nam	námon	numen

INDICATIVE MOOD.

SUBJUNCTIVE.

Present (and Future) Tense.

SING.	PL.	SING.	PL.
(1) Ic nime	we nimæð	Ic nime	we nimæn
(2) þú nimest	ge nimað	þú nime	ge nimen
(3) he nimeð	hi nimað	hæ nime	hi nimen

Preterite.

SING.	PL.	SING.	PL.
(1) Ic nam	we námon	Ic náme.	we námen
(2) þu náme	ge námoi	þu náme.	ge námen
(3) he nain	hi námon	he náme	hi namen

IMPERATIVE.		INFINITIVE.	
		<i>Simple.</i>	<i>Dative.</i>
(2) nim	nimað	niman	to nimanne
PRES. P.		PASS. P.	
	nimende		numen

GOTHIC

INDICATIVE PRESENT.		SUBJUNCTIVE PRESENT.	
SING.	PL.	SING.	PL.
(1) nima	nimam	(1) nimau	nimai-ma
(2) nimis	nimiþ	(2) nimais	nimaiþ
(3) nimiþ	nimand	(3) nimai	nimai-na

INDICATIVE PRETERITE.		SUBJUNCTIVE PRETERITE.	
(1) nam	nêmun	(1) nêmjau	nêmeima
(2) namt	nêmuþ	(2) nêmjais	nêmeiþ
(3) nam	nêmun	(3) nêmi	nêmeina

IMPERATIVE.		INFIN.	DAT. INFIN.
SING.	PL.		
(2) nim	nimiþ	niman	—
PRES. P.		PASS. P.	
	ninand-s		niniþs

FIRST PERIOD.

(1) Many strong verbs have change of vowel in the second and third persons sing. pres. indic.

(1) cume (come)	créope (creep)	bace (bake)	feallan (fall)
(2) cymst	crýpst	becst	felst
(3) cymð	crýpð	becð	felð

(2) Strong verbs have the same vowel-change in the second person preterite indicative as in the plural, as *ic fund* (found), *ðu funde* (=foundest), pl. *we fundon*, &c.

CLASSIFICATION OF STRONG VERBS.

DIVISION I. *Class 1.*

PRES. <i>a, ea.</i>	PRET. <i>éo, é.</i>	PASS. P. <i>a, ea.</i>	
(1) fealle	féell	feallen	fall
wealle	wéoll	weallen	well
fealde	féold	fealcen	fold
healde	héold	healden	hold
stealde	stéold	stealden	possess
wealde	wéold	wealden	wield
banne	béon	bannen	order
spanne	spéon	spannen	fasten
fó ¹	feng	fangen	take, catch
hó	héng	hangen	hang
gange	géong	gangen	go

PRES. <i>á.</i>	PRET. <i>éo, é.</i>	P.P. <i>á.</i>	
(2) swápe	swéop	swapen	sweep
bláw	bléow	bláwen	blow
cnáwe	cnéow	cnáwen	know
cráwe	créow	cráwen	crow
máwe	méow	máwen	mow
sáw e	séow	sáwen	sow
ðáwe	ðréow	ðáwen	throw
wáwe	wéow	wáwen	blow
háte	hét (héht)	háten	order
scáde	scéd	scáden	shed, divide
láce	léolc (léc)	lácen	leap

PRES. <i>ei.</i>	PRET. <i>éo.</i>	P.P. <i>éa.</i>	
(3) hléape	hléop	hléapen	leap
á-hnéape	a-hnéop	ahnéapen	sever
héawe	héow	héawen	hew
béate	béot	béaten	beat

¹ Gothic *fahan* derives from an older form *fanhan*, *hðhan* from *hanhan*.

	PRES. <i>do.</i>	PRET. <i>do, é.</i>	P.P. <i>æ.</i>	
(4)	slæpe	slép	slæpen	sleep
	læte	léort (lôrt, lét)	læten	let
	on-dræde	-dréord (-dréd)	-dræden	dread
	ræde	réord (réd, ræd)	ræden	counsel
	PRES. <i>ð.</i>	PRET. <i>ðo, é.</i>	P.P. <i>ð.</i>	
(5)	hrópe	hréop	hrópen	cry
	hwope	hwéop	hwópen	whoop
	blówe	bléow	blówen	blow
	flówe	fléow	flówen	flow
	grówe	gréow	grówen	grow
	hlówe	hléow	hlówen	low
	rówe	réow	rówen	row
	spówe	spéow	spówen	speed
	blóte	bléot	blóten	sacrifice
	swóge	swéoh (swécóg)	swógen	overpower
	PRES. <i>é.</i>	PRET. <i>é.</i>	P.P. <i>é.</i>	
	wépe	wéop	wopen	weep

Geong was replaced by a weak form *éode* (*eade*) from a root *i*, to go. A weak form *gengde* is also met with.

Slépe occurs for *slép* in the Northern dialect.

SECOND PERIOD.

PRES.	PRET.	P.P.	
falle, ualle	ueol, feol, fol, fel	iuallen, iueollen ¹	fall
halde (holde)	heold, held, hæld, huid	ihalden, holden	hold
falde (folde)	feold	ifolden	fold
walde (welde)	wald, weld	awald	wield
walke	weolk, welk	iwalken	walk
fo (fange)	feng	ifon, ifongen	take
ga (go, gange)	—	igan, igon, gangen	go
hange	heong, heng	hongen, hon	hang
hate (hote)	hahte, hehte, het	ihæten, ihotc, ihaten	order
læc	læc	—	leap
blawe (blowe, blawe)	blcou, bléu, blæw, blou	iblowen	blow
cnawe (cnowe)	cneow, cnew, kneu	icnawen	know
sawe (sowe)	seow, sow	isowen, isawen	sow

¹ The Southern dialects retain the prefix *i* or *y* before the p.p., and frequently drop the final *n*. The Northern dialects drop the prefixal *i*, but seldom lose the *n*.

PRES.	PRET.	P.P.	
mawe (mowe)	meow, mew	imowen	mow
brawe (browe)	breou, breu	iprowen	throw
slæpe (slepe)	slæp, sleap	islepen	sleep
læpe (lepe)	leop, lep, leup, leoup, lup	ileopen, ileapen	leap
læte (lete)	let	iletēn, ilætēn	let
wepe (weope)	weop, wep	iwopen	weep
hewe	heow, hew	ihewen, heouwen, hæwen	hew
bete	beot, bet	ibeten, ibætēn	beat
rowe	rew, reu	irōwen	row
growe	greu, greow	igrowen	grow

Some few perfects have become weak, as :—

læte (lete)	lette (lætte, leatte) ¹	—	let
lepe	leopt	—	leap
slepe	sleapte (slapte) ²	—	sleep
drede	dredde ³	adrad ¹	dread
shæde	shadde ³	shadd ³	shed

THIRD PERIOD.

PRES.	PRET.	P.P.	
faile	vil, fel, fil, ful	yfalle, yfallen, yvalle, fallen	fall
halde (holde)	held, hield, huld	yholde, iholden	hold
fange (fo, fonge)	afong, rfeng, aveng, avong, veng	yfonge, ifongen, ivongen	take
hange (honge)	heng	yhonge	hang
go	—	ygo, gon, gan	go
hote	het, hight	yhote	call, name
blowe (blawe)	blew	yblowe, yblowen	blow
knowe (knaue)	knew, kneu	yknownen, knawen	know
sow	seu, sew	sowen	sow
prowe	prew, preu	iprowen	thrown
slepe	slep, sleep, sleop, slup	—	sleep
bete	byet, bet	byeten, ibeten	beat
lete (late)	let	ilate, laten	let
drede	dred	—	dread
lepe	lep, hliep, hlip	—	leap
wepe	wep	—	weep
hewe	hew	ihewen	hew
rowe	rew, row	—	row
growe	grew, greu	igrowen	grow

¹ In *Lazamon*.² In *Lazamon* and *Ormulum*.³ In *Ormulum*.

The following weak forms are to be met with :-

idrad (p.p.), *dradd* (perf.), and *fanged* (perf. and p.p.), *hatte* (p.p.), *shadde* (perf.), *shad* (p.p.), *lette* (perf.), *ilet* (p.p.), *welte*, *weped* (perf.), *wede* and *wende*, *went* (perf.), *hanged*, *hanged* (p.p.).

FOURTH PERIOD.

PRES.	PRET.	P.P.	
falle	fel, ful	fallen	fall
holdē	held, huld	holden	hold
walk	welk	—	walk
under-fong	-feng	-fongen	undertake
honge, hange	heng, heeng	hongen	hang
gon, goon, goo, go	—	goon, gon, ygo	go
hote	hight	hoten	call, name
blowc	blew	blowen	blow
knowc	knew	knownen	know
crowc	crew, creew	crowen	crow
growc	grew	growen	grow
sowc	sew, seew	sowen	sow
throw	threw	throwen	throw
slepe	slep, sleep	slepen	sleap
lepe	lecp, lep	lopen	leap
lete, late	let, lect	leten	let
hewe	hew, heew	hewen	hew
bete	bet, beet	beten	beat
wepc	wcl, weep	wepen, wopen	weep

(1) The following weak forms make their appearance :—

weeldide (p.p. *weeldia*), *walked* (perf. and p.p.), *underfonged* (perf.), *hangide*, *hongede* (perf.), *hanged*, *honged* (p.p.), *sweepide* (perf.), *isweped* (p.p.), *knowide* (perf.), *sowide* (perf.), *sowid* (p.p.), *leppide*, *lepte* (perf.), *growed* (perf.), *leppid*, *lept* (p.p.), *slepte* (perf.), *slept* (p.p.), *dræide*, *dradde* (perf.), *adred*, *adrad* (p.p.).

(2) *Held*, *heng*, are sometimes used for the p.p.

(3) A mute final *e* is often found in the perfect, as *blewe*, *crewe*, *leete*, &c.

DIVISION II. *Class I.*

FIRST PERIOD. †

PRES. <i>e, i.</i>	PRET. <i>a (ea, æ).</i>	PL. <i>u.</i>	P.P. <i>u, o.</i>	
(1) belle	beal	bullon	hollen	bellow
swelle	sweal (sweoll)	swullon	swollen	swell
helpe	healp	hulpon	holpen	help
delfe	dealf	dulfon	doften	delve
melte	mealt	multon	molten	melt
swelte	swealt	swulton	swolten	die
be-telde	teald	tuldon	tolden	cover up
melce	mealc	mulcon	molcen	milk
belge	bealh (bealg)	bulgon	bolgen	be wroth
féole	fealh (fealg)	fulgon ¹	folgen	hide
swelge	swealh (swealg)	swulgon	swolgen, swelgen	swallow
gielle	geal	gullon	gollen	yell
gielpe	gealp	gulpon	golpen	boast
gielde	geald	guldon	golden	pay
(2) hlimme	hlam	hlummon	hlummen	sound
grimme	gram	grummon	grummen	rage
swimme	swam	swummon	swummen	swim
climbe	clamb, clom	clumbon	clumben	climb
gelimpe	gelamp	ge'umpon	gelumpen	happen
gerimpe	geramp	gerumpon	gerumpen	rumple
on-ginne	-gan	-gunnon	-gunnen	begin
linne	lan	lunnon	lunnen	cease
rinne (eorne)	ran	runnon	runnen	run
sinne	san	sunnon	sunnen	think
spinne	span	spunnon	spunnen	spin
winne	wan	wunnon	wunnen	fight (win)
stinte	stant	stunton	stunten	stint
ðrinte	ðrant	ðrunton	ðrunten	swell
binde	band	lundon	bunden	bind
finde	fand	fundon	funden	find
grinde	grand	grundon	grunden	grind
hrinde	hrand	hrundon	hrunden	push
swinde	swand	swundon	swunden	pine (swoon)
ðinde	ðand	ðundon	ðunden	swell
winde	wend	wundon	wunden	wind
crince	cranc	cruncon	cruncen	yield
á-cwincc	-cwanc	-cwuncon	-cwuncen	go out (quench)
drince	dranc	druncon	druncen	drink

Regular form ; but *fdlon* is more frequent.

PRES. <i>c, i.</i>	PRET. <i>a (ea, æ)</i>	PL. <i>u.</i>	P.P. <i>u, o.</i>	
for-scrince	-sc ¹ anc	-scr ¹ uncon	-scr ¹ uncen	shrink
since	sanc	suncon	suncen	sink
stince	stanc	stuncon	stuncen	stink
sw ¹ hce	swanc	swuncon	swuncen	toil
bringe	brang ¹	brungon ¹	brungen ¹	bring
clinge	clang	clungon	clungen	cling (wither)
cringe	crang	crungon	crungen	cringe, fall
singe	sang	sungon	sungen	sing
springe	sprang	sprungon	sp ¹ ungen	spring
stinge	stang	stungon	stungen	sting
swinge	swang	swungon	swungen	swing, beat
þringe	þrang	þrungon	þrungen	throng
þwinge	þwang	þwungon	þwungen	constrain
wringe	wrang	wrungon	wrungen	wring

	PRES. <i>*eo.</i>	PRET. <i>ea.</i>	PL. <i>u.</i>	P.P. <i>o.</i>	
(3)	murne	mcarn	murnon	mornen	mourn
	spurne	spearn	spurnon	spornen	spurn
	weorpe	wearp	wurpon	worpen	warp, throw
	ceorfe	cearf	corfon	corfen	carve, cut
	deorfe	dearf	durfon	dorfen	labour
	hweorfe	hwear	hwurfon	hworfea	return
	steorfe	stearf	sturfon	storfen	starve, die
	sweorfe	swearf	swurfon	sworfen	clanse
	weorðe	wearð	wurdon	worden	become
	sweorce	swearc	swurcon	sworcen	grow faint
	beorpc	bearh	burgon	borgen	guard
	feorhte	feaht	fuhton	fohten	fight

	PRES. <i>c.</i>	PRET. <i>ea (æ).</i>	PL. <i>u.</i>	P.P. <i>o.</i>	
(4)	berste	bearst	burston	borsten	harst
	ðerste	ðærsc	ðurscon	ðorscen	thresh
	gefrigne	gefrægn	gefrunon	gefrugen	ask
	bregde	brægd	brugdon	brogden	braid
	stregde	strægd	strugdon	strogden	strew, sprinkle

SECOND PERIOD.

PRES.	PRET.	PL.	P.P.	
swell	swol	swolzen	swollen	swell
zelp	zealp	zulden	zopen	yelp
zelle	zal	zullen	zollen	yell

¹ Later forms for *bráhte, bróhton, bróht.*

PRES.	PRET.	PL.	P. P.	
helpe delve	halp, nelp dalf, d'olf, delf	holpen dulfen, dulven	hoipen dolfen, dolven	help delve
zelde	zeald, zald	zulden, zolden	zolden	yield
swelte belge	swalt balg, hælh, belh, balh	swulten bulzen	swolten bolzen, bolwen	swelter, die be angry, swell
swelge swimme (bi)-limpe	swearh swam, swom -lomp, -lamp	swolzen swummen -lumpen, lompfen	— swommen -lumpen	'swallow swim happen
climbe b-linne (be)-ginne (a)-ginne (i)-winne {rinne (irnc, eornc, erne) beorne, berne, brinne bint finde	clamb, clomb blan -gan, -gon -wan, -won ran, ron (orn, arn) born band, bond fand, fond, vond	clumben blunnen -gunnen -wunnen urnen burnen bunden funden	clumben blunnen -gunnen -wunnen runnen — bunden funden	climb cease begin win run burn bind find
grinde swinde winde {swinche, swinke {drinke (drinche)	grand, grond swond wand, wond swant, swonc	grunden — wunden -wunken	grunden — wunden swunken	grind — wind toil
stinke singe springe swinge ringe clinge stinge pringe {weorpe, worpe, werpe	stanc, stonc sang, song sprang, sp'ong swang, swong rang, ronc clang, clong stang, stong prang, prong warp, worp, werp	stunken sungen sprungen swungen rungen clungen stungen prungen wurpen	stunken sungen sprungen swungen rungen clungen stungen prungen worpe..	stink sing spring swing ring cling sting throng warp
sterfe kerfe wurpe (worpe)	starf, sterf carf, cærf, kerf warþ	sturven curven wurþer	storven coven wurþen, worþen	die cut become

PRES.	PRET.	PL.	P. P.	
breste, berste	brast, barst borst	brusteh, bursten	brosten, borsten, brusten, bursten	burst
preste	prash	prushen	proshen	thresh
swærce	—	swurken	—	grow faint
fehte	faht, feaht, foght, feht	fuhten	fohten, foghten	fight
berge	barh, barg	burzen	borzen borwen	protect
{ brede abrede	{ braid (breid) abred	{ bruiden —	{ — abroden	{ braid

(1) Southern English dialects have *o* for the Northern *a* in the perfect, as *fond* = *fand*; *stonc* = *stanc*, &c.

(2) A few verbs have become weak in Lazonon, as—

mornede (perf.), *murned* (p.p.); *freinede* (perf.), *freined* (p.p.); *barnde* (perf.); *derfde* (perf.), *derved* (p.p.); *clemde* (perf.); *ringede* (perf.). *Frazznedd* (p.p.) occurs in the *Ormulum*.

THIRD PERIOD.

PRES.	PRET.	PL.	P. P.	
helpe	help, halp, heolp	holpen	holpen ¹	help
selpe	zalp	—	zolpen	boast
delve	dalf	dolven	dolven	delve
melte	malt, molt	molten	molten	melt
zelde	zalt, zold, zeld	zolden	zolden, yolden	yield
swelze	swal	—	—	swell
climb	clam	clomben	clomben	climb
swimme	swam, swom	—	—	swim
ginne	gan, gon	gonnen	gonnen, gunnen	begin
winne	wan, won	wonnen	wonnen	win
rinne	ran, ron	ronnen	ronnen, runnen	run
renne	—	—	—	—
irne	orn, arn, yarn	—	y-yerne	run
linne	blan, lan	blonnen	blonnen	lease
b-linne	—	—	—	—
binde	band, bond	bonden bounden	bonden, bounden bunden	bind

¹ *n* often dropped in Southern dialects. The Northern dialects prefer *n* in the pl. and p.p.

PRES.	PRET.	PL.	P.P.	
finde	fand, fond, vond	fonden, founden	fonden, funden, founden	find
winde	wond, wand	wonden	wonden	wind
drinke	drank, dronk	drunken	dronken, drunken	drink
sinke	sank, sonk	sunken, sonken	sonken	sink
stinke	stank, stonk	stonken	stonken	stink
swinke	swank	swonken	swonken	toil
singe	sang, song, zang, zong	songen	zongen, songen, sungen	sing
slinge	slong, slang	slongen	slongen	sling
þringe	þrang, þrong	þrongen	þrongen	throng
springe	spraung, sprung	sþrongen	sprongen	spring
ringe	rang, rang	rongen	rongen, rungen	ring
wringe	wrang, wrolog	wrongen	wrongen	wring
stinge	stang, stong	stongen	stongen, stungen	sting
swinge	swong, swang	swongen	swungen	swing
kerve	caif, kerf	corven	corven	carve
sterve	starf	storven	storven	starve
werpe	warp	—	worpen	warp
berste, breste	brast, barst, borst	borster	borsten, bursten	burst
berse	bor3	—	borzen	protect
brede	braid (to-bred)	—	—	braid
worpe	werþ, worþ	worþen	—	become
fiste	fost, faght, wost	fosten	fosten, foughten	fight

Weak perfects replace strong ones, as :—

Clemede (Early Eng. Poems); *swelled* (Tristram); *swalte* (Ayenbite); *swelzed* (Psalter); *arnde* (Robt. of Gl.); *helped* is a p.p. in Psalter; *melte*; *slenget* (Havelok).

FOURTH PERIOD

PRES.	PRET.	PL.	P.P.	
swell	swall	swollen	swollen	swell
helpe	halp, holp	holpen	holpen	help
delve	dalf	dolven	dolven, delven	delve
melte	malt, molt	molten	molten	melt
swelte	swolt	—	—	die
zeldc, zeelde	zald, zold, yeld	zolden, zelzen	zolden	yield
swimme	swam, swom	swommen	swommen	swim
climbe	clamb, clomb	clomber, clamben	clomben	climb

PRES.	PRET.	PL.	P.P.	
biginne	(bi)-gan	(bi)gonnen, (bi)gunnen	(bi)gunnen, (bi)gonnen	begin
spinne	span	sponnen	sponnen	spin
winne	wan, won	wonnen	wonnen	win
renne	ran, ron	rounen, runnen	runnen, ronnen	run
stinte	—	—	stenten	stint (stop)
binde	bond, boond, bound, band	bouden	bounden	bind
finde	foad, foond	founden	founden	found
grinde	grond, grand	grounden	grounden	grind
wiade	wond	wouden	wouden	wind
sinke	sank, sonk	sonken	sonken, suaken	sink
drinke	drank, dronk	dronken	drunken	drink
swinke	swank	swonken	swohken	toil
stinke	stank, stonk	stonken	stonken	stink
shrinke	shrank	shronken	shronken	shrink
ringe	rang, rong	rongen	rongen, rungen	ring
singe	sang, soong, song	songen	songen, sungen	sing
stinge	stong	stongen	stongen, stungen	sting
springe	sprang, sprong, sproong	sprongen	sprongen	spring
thringe	thiong	throngen thrungen	throngen	throng
wringe	wrong, wrang	wrongen	wrongen	wring
kerve	karf	korven	korven	carve
sterve	starf	storven	storven	starve
worthe	worth	—	worthen	become
breste	brast, brost, brest, barst, borst	brosten, barsten, borsten	brosten, borsten	burst
threshe	thrasch	throschen	throschen	thresh
breide	(to-)brayd	—	—	braid
figte	fast, fauzt	fazten, fouzten	fouzten	fight

(1) Weak perfects—*helpede, delvide, meltide, zeldide, keruyde, rennede, threschide* (Wickliffe), *swymmed* (Allit. Poems).

(2) Weak p.p.—*helped, melted, threshed brayzede* (Wickliffe).

DIVISION II. *Class II.*

FIRST PERIOD.

PRES. <i>i.</i>	PRET. <i>æ, a</i> (pl. <i>æ, a</i>)	P.P. <i>u, o.</i>	
(1) cwele	cwæl ¹	cwolen	die
ge-dwele	-dwæl	-dwolen	err
hele	hæl	holen	hide, cover
stele	stæl	stolen	steal
swele	swæl	swolen	sveal
(2) niine	nóm, nam	numen	take
cume	cwóm, cóm, cwam	cumen	'come
(3) bere	bær	boren	bear
sciære	scær	scoren	shear
tere	tær	toren	tear
ge-ðwere	-ðwær	-ðworen	stir
brece	bræc	brocen	break

SECOND PERIOD.

PRES.	PRET.	P.P.	
(1) stele	stal, (stalen, pl.)	stolen	steal
(2) nime	nam, nom, nām (nomen, nemen, pl.)	numen, nomen	steal
come, cume	com (comen, pl.)	cumen, comen	come
(3) bere	bær, bar, bor, beer (pl. 'beren, bæren)	boren	bear
scære, schære	scar, schær	scoren	shear
tere	tar (toren, pl.)	tōren	tear
(4) break	brac, bræg, breac, brec (brocen, braken, pl.)	broken	break
speke, spæke	spac, spæc, spec (pl. spæken, speken)	spekeð, spoken	speak

Weak perfect—*helede* (Lazamon).

THIRD PERIOD.

PRES.	PRET.	P.P.	
(1) hele, hile	hal	holen	hide
stele	stel, stæl	stolen	steal
(2) nime	nom, nain	nomen, numen	take
cume	com, cam	comen, cumen	come

¹ Pl. *cwélon*. All verbs of this class have a long vowel in plural.

PRES.	PRET.	P.P.	
(3) bere	ber, bar, bor	boren	bear
schere	scher, schar , schor	schoren, schorn	shear
tere	tar	toren	tear
(4) breke	brac, brek	broken	break
speke	spac, spec	spoken	speak

FOURTH PERIOD.

PRES.	PRET.	P.P.	
stele	stal, stał, stol, stel	stolen	steal
nime	nam, nom, nem	nomen	take
come, came	cam, com	comen, cumen	come
bere	bar, baar, beer, bor (bare)	boren, born	bear
schere	schar	schoren	shear
tere (teere)	tar (tare)	toren, torn	tear
breke, breeke	brak (brake), breek	broken	break

Weak perfects—*hilede* and *tereðe* (Wickliffe).

DIVISION II. Class III.

FIRST PERIOD.

PRES. <i>e</i>	PRET. <i>æ</i> (pl. <i>ǣ</i>)	P.P. <i>æ, i</i>	
drepe	dræp	drepen	strike, kill
swefe	swæf	swēfen	sleep
wefe	wæf	wēfen	weave
ete	ǣt	eten	eat
frete	fræt	freten	eat up
mete	mæt	meten	mete, measure
cnede	cnæd	cnoden	knead
trede	træd	treden	tread
cweðe	cwæð	cweden	quoth
lese	læs	lesen	gather
ge-nese	-næs	-nesen	recover
wese	wæs	wesen	be (was)
wrece	wræc	wrecen	wreak
wēge	wæg	wegen	carry
gife	geaf	gifen	give
(for)gite	-geat	-gieten	(for)get
on gite	-geat	-gieten	perceive
séo	seah (pl. sægon) sáwon)	gesegen, gesewen	see
fricge	fræg	gefregen	inquire
licge	læg	legen	lie
ðicge	ðeah, ðah (pl. ðrægon)	ðegen	take
sitte	sæt	geseten	sit
bidde	bæd	beden	bid

SECOND PERIOD.

PRES.	PRET.	P. P.	
drepe	drap	dropen	slay
sete	æt, et, at, æat	eten	eat
(under) site, (bi- sete	-sæt, -gat, -sat, -set	-seten, -eten, -siten	perceive
(for)frete	fræt	freten	fret
mete	mæt	meten	mete
trede	træd (pl. treden), trad	treden	træd
queþe	cweþ, quæþ, cwaþ (pl. cwæþen, queþen)	queþen	quoth
—	was (pl. weren)	—	was
wreke	wræc, wrec	wreken, wroken	wreak
sprece	spræc	sprecen	speak
give	gief, gaf, gef	given, given	give
lyge	læi, leai, læz (pl. geven, læzen)	leien, laien, lezen	lie
seo, se	sæh, seih, sag, seg, sah (pl. sæzen, segen),	sezen, sen, sogen sowen	see
sitte	sæt (pl. seten), sat, set	seten	sit
bidde	bæd, bed, bad (pl. bæden, beden, boden)	—	bid

Tredde = trodden occurs in *Ormulum*, l. 5728.

THIRD PERIOD.

PRES.	PRET.	P. P.	
drepe	drap	—	slay
ete	et	eten	eat
frete	fret	freten	fret
sete	sat, set, zet	seten, siten	get
trede	trad	treden, troden	tread
queþe	quod, quod, quad	—	quoth
wreke	wrak, wrek	wroken	wreak
give	gef, gaf	given, given	give
ligge, lie	lai, lei, lez	leyen, liggeren	lie
sitte	sat, zet	seten	sit
bidde	bad, bed	beden	bid
se, seye	say, sei, saw, sagh, sauh, sei	sefen, seien, se- wen, sezen, zezen, seen, sain, sen	see

FOURTH PERIOD.

PRES.	PRET.	P. P.	
weve	waf?	woven	weave
ete	et, eet	eten	eat
mete	mat, mēt	meten	mete
zete	zeet, zat, zot	zetten, zoten	get
trede (treede)	trad (trade)	treden, troden	tread
queþe	quod	—	quoth
wreke	wrak, wrek	wroken	wreak
se	saȝ, say, seȝ, saȝh, seien, seen saw, siȝ, siȝh, sauȝh, saugh,		see
ȝife, ȝefe, ȝeve	ȝaȝ, ȝef, yof	ȝiven, ȝeve yowen	give
sitte	sat (sate)	sitten, seeten, setep	
bidde	bad		bid
ligge, lie	lay, ley	leyen, leien	lie

Weak forms—*metide* for *mat* or *met*.

DIVISION. II. Class IV.

FIRST PERIOD.

PRES. a.	PRET. <i>ð</i> (pl. <i>ð</i>).	P. P. a.	
(1) ale	ól	alen	shine
gale	gól	galen	sing
fare	fór	faren	fare, go
stape	stóp	stāpen	step
scieppe	scóp	scapen	shape
grafe	gróf	grafen	dig
scafe	scóf	scafen	shave
hlade	hlód	hlāden	load
wade	wód	wāden	wade, go
ace	óc	acen	acfe
bacc	bóc	bacen	bake
sacc	sóc	sacen	fight
wace	wóc	wacen	wake
wasce	wósc	wāscen	wash
drage	drōh	dragen	drag, draw
gnage	gnōh	gnagen	gnaw
(2) sceðfe	scóð	sceaden	scathe
sceace	scóc	sceacen	shake
leá	lōh	lāgen	blame
sleá	slōh	slagen	slay
ðweá	ðwōh	ðwegen	wash
weaxe	wóx	weaxen	wax

PRES. a.	PRET. <i>ð</i> (pl. <i>ð</i>).	h ² .P. a.	
(3) spane stand	spōn stóð	spanen, standen	allure stand
(4) swerige hebbe hliehhe, hlehe	swór hóf hlóh	sworen hafen —	swear heave laugh

SECOND PERIOD.

PRES.	PRET.	P.P.	
gulle, zelle	goit* (pl. gollen, gullen)	zolen	sing, ye
fare	for	faren	go, fare
scape	scop	scapen, scapen	shape
grave	grof	graven	grave
lade	[lod]	laden	lade
wade	wod	waden	go
wasshe	wesh, weosch, weis, wuesch	washen, waschen	wash
bake	bok, book	baken	bake
(for)sake	-soc	-saken	forsake
take	toc	taken	take
ake	oc	—	ache
wakie, wuke	woc	waken	wake
drage, drawe	droh, drouh, drog, drug (F. drown)	drazen, dragen, diawen, drogen	draw
sle	sloh, slæh, slog, slug, slouh (pl. slowen)	slowen, slazen, slezen, sleien, slawen, slagen, slain	slay
fle, fla, flo	floz	vlažen	flay
waxe	weox, wex, wax	waxen, wexen, woxen	wax
stand	stā	standen	stand
swerie	swor	sworen	swear
stepe	stop	stopeh	step
have, hefe	heaf, hæf, hef, hof, heof	heoven, hofen, hoven	heave
lehze	loh	lozen, lowen	laugh

Weak perfects :—*taked* (La₃.) = *tæ?*; *hefed* = *hof* (O.F. Hom., Second Series); *wakeden* = *woc* (La₃. Text B).

THIRD PERIOD.

PRES.	PRET.	P. P.	
gale	zal, 3ol	—	sing, yell
stonde	stod	standen, stonden	stand
fare	for	faren	fare
swere	swor, swar	sworen, sworn	swear
schape	schop	schapen	shape
wade	wed	—	go
washe	wesch, wosch	waschen	wash
schake	schok	schaken	shake
ake	ok	(oken)	ache
forsake	forsok	forsaken	forsake
take	tok	taken	take
wake	wok	waken	wake
drawe	drow, drouh, drew	drawen	draw
waxe, wexe	wax, wex	waxen, woxen	wax
slc, sla, slo	slow, slogh, slouh, slou	slawen, slain	slay
fle, fla, flo, fla3e	flogh, flouh, vleas	flain, flawen	flay
lighe, lawghe, hle3e	low, low3	—	laugh
stepe	step, stap	stopen, stoupen	step
hefe, hebbe	hof	hoven, heven	heave

FOURTH PERIOD.

PRES.	PRET.	P. P.	
stonde, stande	stod, stood	stonden, standen	stand
swere, sweere	swer, swor, swoor	sworen	swear
fare	for	fagen, foren	go, fare
shape	shop	shapen	shape
stepe	—	stopen, stoupen	step
heue	haf, hef, hof	hoven	heave
grave	(grof)	graven	grave
lade	lade	laden	load
schave	schoof	schaven, schoven	shave
wasche	wesch, wosch,	waschen	wash
bake	hook	baken	bake
schake,	schok, schook	schaken	shake
forsake	forsok	forsaken	forsake
take	tok, took	taken	take
wake	wook	waken	wake
ake, aake, ache	ok	—	ache
draw	drow, drouh, drew, drouh	drawen	draw

PRES.	PRET.	P.P.	
gnaw	gnéw, gnou	gnawen,	gnaw
laghe, lawe, leyse	low, low3, lo3, lough, loow3	la3en	laugh
sle, slea, sla	slo3, slow, slew, slew3	slain, slawen, slawn	slay
fle, flo	flouh	flain	flay
wexe, waxe	wox, wax, wex, wæx	woxen, waxen, wexen	wax

(1) Weak perfects :—*3ollide, 3ellide, shapide, stept, hevede, graved, schæved, waschede, bakede, shockide, shakide, wakide, akide, leizede, drawede, waxed.*

(2) Weak p.p. :—*heved, graved, waischid, waked, shapid, awakid.*

DIVISION II. Class V.

FIRST PERIOD.

PRES. <i>i.</i>	PRET. <i>á.</i>	PL. <i>i.</i>	P.P. <i>i.</i>	
dwiné	dwán	dwinon	dwinen	dwindle
gíne	gán	ginon	ginen	yawn
hríne	hrán	hrinon	hrinen	touch
hwíne	hwán	hwinon	hwinen	whiz
scíne	scán	scinon	scinen	shif
gripe	grap	gripon	gripen	gripe
nípe	náp	nipon	nipen	darken
rípe	ráp	ripon	ripen	reap
o-slípe	-sláp	-slipon	-slipen	dissolve
be-lífe	-láf	-lifon	-lifen	remain
clífe	cláf	clifon	clifen	cleave
drífe	dráf	drifon	drifen	drive
scrífe	scráf	scrifon	scrifen	shrive
slífe	sláf	slifon	slifen	split
swífe	swáf	swifon	swifen	sweep, turn
spáwe	spáw	spiwon	spiwen	spew
bíte	bát	biton	biten	bite
flíte	flát	fliton	fliten	flite, strive
hníte	hnát	hniton	hniten	butt
slíte	slát	sliton	sliten	slit
smíte	smát	smiton	smiten	smite
ðwíte	ðwát	ðwiton	ðwiten	cut off
wíte	wát	witon	witen	go
wlíte	wlát	wlifton	wliten	look
wríte	wrát	writon	writen	write

PRES. <i>i.</i>	PRET. <i>á.</i>	PL. <i>i.</i>	P. P. <i>i.</i>	
bíde	bád	bidon	biden	bide
glíde	glád	glidon	gliden	glide
gníde	gnád	gnidon	gniden	rub
hlíde	hlád	hlidon	hliden	cover
ríde	rád	ridon	riden	ride
slíde	slád	slidon	sliden	slide
stríde	strád	stridon	striden	stride
líðe	láð	lidon	liden	sail
scriðe	scráð	scridon	scriden	go
sníðe	snáð	snidon	sniden	slit
wríðe	wráð	wridon	wriden	writhe,
				wreathe
wríðe	wráð	wridon	wriden	bud, grow
á-gríse	-grás	-grison	-grisen	dread
á-rise	rás	rison	risen	rise
blíce	blác	blicon	blicea	shine
síce	sác	sicon	sicen	sigh
sníce	snác	snicon	snicen	sneak
stríce	strác	stricon	stricen	go
swíce	swác	swicon	swicen	deceive
wíce	wác	wicon	wicen	yield
hníge	hnáh	hnigon	hnigen	nod
míge	máh	migon	migen	water
síge	sáh	sigon	sigen	sink
stíge	stáh	stigon	stigen	ascend
wíge	wáh	wigon	wigen	fight
léo	láh (lág)	ligon	ligen	lend, give
séo	sáh	sigon	sigen	strain
wréo	wráh (wréah)	wrigon	wrogen, wri- gen	cover

SECOND PERIOD.

PRES.	PRET.	PL.	P. P.	
chine	chan, chon	—	chinen	split
scine	scæn, son (shon)	(= shinen	shipen	shine
rine	ran	—	rinen	touch
gripc	grap, grop, græp	gripen	gripen	gripe
ripe	rop	ripen	ripen	reap
drive	draf, dræf, dræf	drifen	driven, drifen	drive
þrife	þraf	þrifen	þrifen	thrive
bite	bat, bot	biten	biten	bite
schrive	schrof	schripen	schripen	shrive
slite	slat	sliten	sliten	slit
strive	strof	striven	striven	strive

PRES.	PRET.	PL.	P.P.	
smite	smat, smot, smæt	smiten	smiten	smite
write	wrat, wrot	writen	writen	write
wile	wat	witen	viten	go
white	wlæt	—	—	look
a-bide	-bad, -bod	-biden	-biden	abide
stride	strad	—	—	strive
glide	glad, glæd, glod	gliden	ghden	glide
ride	rad, iod, ræd	riden	riden	ride
gnide	gnad	—	gniden	rub
lide	lað, læð	—	liðen	sail
snide	snæð, snað	sniden	sniden	cut
scriðe	scrað, scroð	scriðen	scriðen	go
wriðe	wrað	—	wriðen	writhe
a-rise	-ras, -ros, -ræs	-risen	-risen	rise
a-grise	-gras, -gros	—	-grisen	dread
strike	strak	striken	-striken	go
swike	swac	swiken	swiken	deceive
size	sah, sch, soh	sizen	sizen	sink
stize	steih, stez, stah stæh	stizen	stizen, stien	ascend
teo	tah, tæh, teh	—	—	accuse
þeo	þæh, þeg, þeah	þizen	þozen, þowen	grow, thrive
wreo	wreih	wrizen, wrien	wrizen, wrien	cover

Weak forms - *liðede*, *liðe* = *læð* (I.a2.); *hilæfde* = *belaf*, (I.a3.); *bilefed* (p.p. Orm.); *bilefde* (Ancræn Riwe); *æonede* *æenede* (from *geonian*, *gīnian*, to yawn—a weak verb) occurs in *St. Marherete*.

THIR PERIOD

PRES.	PRET	PL.	P.P.	
chine	chon, çan	—	chinen	split
schine	schon	schinen	schinen	shine
ripe, repe	[rop]	—	rope	reap
gripe	grop	gripen	gripen	ripe
drife, drive	draf, drof	driven	driven	drive
schrive	schrof	schripen	schripen	shrive
(to) rive	-rof	-ripen	-ripen	rive
prife, thrive	throt	thripen	thripen	thrive
bite	bot, bat	biten	biten	bite
flite	flot	—	—	strive
smite	smat, smot	smiten	smiten	smite

PRES.	PRET.	PL.	P.P.	
write	wrat, wrot	writen	writen	write
abide	abad, abod	abiden	abiden	abide
ride	rad, rod	riden	riden	ride
—	—	—	chidden	chide
gnide	gnad	gniden	gniden	rub
stride	strad, strod	striden	striden	strive
writhe	wroþ	—	wriþen	writhe
rise	ras, ros	risen	risen	risc
agrise	agros	agrisen	agrisen	dread
strice	strek	—	—	go
stiȝe	steȝ, stegh, stey,	—	stiȝen	ascend
	steaz	—	—	—
wre	wreigh	—	wroȝen	cover

(1) Weak perfects—*gripte, griped, schinde, chidde, biswiked, bilifte, belafte, blefede*.

(2) Some singular forms (especially in Northern writers) have a mute *e*, as *smate, bate, abade, abode*.

(3) Northern writers keep *ȝ* (or *o*) in the plural instead of *i*, as *ras ris(en)*.

FOURTH PERIOD.

PRES.	PRET.	PL.	P.P.	
schine	schon, schoon	shinen	shinen	shine
repe	—	—	ropeŋ	reap
dryve	drof, draf	driven	driven	drive
shryve	shrof	shriven	shriven	shrive
stryve	strof, stroof	striven	stiven	strive
thrive	throf	thriven	thriven	thrive
byte	bot, boot, bat	biten	biten	bite
flite	flot	—	—	strive
smyte	smot, smoot,	smiten	smiten	smite
	smat	—	—	—
wryte	wrot, wroot, wrat	writen	writen	write
thwite	—	—	thwiten	cut
bide	bod, hood, bad	biden	biden	bide
chide	—	—	chidden	chide
glide	glod, glood	gliden	gliden	glide
ryde	rod, rood, rad	riden	riden	ride
slyde	slood	slide	sliden	slide
stride	strad	—	—	stride
wrythe	wrooth	—	writen,	writhe
			wrethen	

PRES.	PRET.	PL.	P. P.	
ryse	ros, rōos, ras	risen	risen	rise
(a)grise	-gros	—	-grisen	dread
steȝe, styē	steȝ, steiȝ, stigh	stiȝen	stiȝen	ascend
wriȝ	—	—	wriȝen	cover

Weak perfects—*drwynede*, *agriside*, *sykide*, *stized* (Wickliffe); p.p. *drined* (Chaucer).

In "Alliterative Poems" we find:—*fine*, to cease, with a strong perf. *fon*; and *trine*, to go (of Norse origin), with perf. *tron*.

DIVISION II. Class VI.

FIRST PERIOD.

PRES. <i>eo</i> (<i>ii</i>).	PRET. <i>ea</i> .	PL. <i>u</i> .	P. P. <i>o</i> .	
créope	créap	crupon	cropen	creep
dréope	dréap	drupon	dropen	drop
géope	géap	gupon	gopen	take up
slúpe	sléap	slupon	slopen	dissolve
súpe	séap	supon	sopen	sup
cléofe	cléaf	clufon	clofen	cleave
dúfe	déaf	dufon	dofen	dive
scúfe	scéaf	scufon	scofen	shove
réofe	réaf	rufon	rofen	reach
bréowe	bréaw	bruwon	browen	chew
céowe	céaw	cūwon	cowen	chew
hréowe	hléaw	hruwon	hrōwen	reu
préowe	préaw	pruwon	prowen	throe
bréote	bréat	bruton	broten	break
fléote	fléat	fluton	floten	float
géote	géat	guton	goten	pour
gréote	gréat	guton	groten	weep
hléote	hléat	hluton	hloten	cast lots
hrúte	hrépt	hruton	hroten	snore
lúte	lépt	luton	loten	lout, bow
néote	neat	nuton	noten	enjoy
réote	réat	ruton	roten	fall
scéote	scéat	scuton	scoten	shoot
ðéote	ðéat	ðuton	ðoten	howl
á-ðreote	-ðréat	-ðruton	-ðroten	loathe, irk
béode	béat	budon	boden	bid
créode	créat	crudon	croden	sound
léode	léat	ludon	loden	grow
reode	réat	rudon	roden	redde
strúde	stréat	strudon	stroden	despoil

PRES. <i>eo</i> (<i>ú</i>).	PRET. <i>ea</i> .	PL. <i>u</i> .	P. P. <i>o</i> .	
á-bréode	-bréað	-bruðon	-broden	degenerate
hréode	hréað	hrudon	broden	adorn
séode	séað	sudon	sodeh	seethe
céose	céas	curon	coren	choose
dréose	dréas	druron	droren	mourn
fréose	fréas	fruron	froren	freeze
be-gréose	-gréas	-gruron	-groren	frighten
hréose	hréas	hruron	hroren	rush
for-léose	-léas	-luron	-loren	lose
brúce	bréac	brucon	brocen	brook, use
lúce	léac	lucon	locen	lock
réocce	réac	rucen	roccen	reck
sméocce	sméac	snucon	smoccen	smoke
súce	séac	sucon	socce	suck
húge	béah	bugon	bogen	bow
dréoge	dréah	drugon	drogen	suffer
fléoge	fléah	flugon	flogen	fly
léoge	léah	lugon	logen	lie
smúge	sméah	smugon	smogen	creep
fléo	fléah	flugon	flogen	flee
téo	téah	tugon	togen	draw
ðéo	ðéah	ðugon	ðogen	thrive
wréo	wréah	wrugon	wrogen	cover

SECOND PERIOD.

PRES.	PRET.	PL.	P. P.	
cræpe	crap, crep	crupon	cropen	creep.
deofe	deaf, def	—	—	dive
scuvc	scaf, scæf, scef	scuven, schoven	schoven	shove
cleove	clæf	cluwen, clufen	gloven, clofen	cleave
brewe	brew	—	browen	brew
reowe	ræw, rew, reuw, reu	—	—	—
geote	gæt, get	guten	gote	pour
sceote	sceat, scæt, scheat, schet	scuten	scoten	shoot
fleote, flete	flet, flæt	fluten	floten	float
lute	leat	luten	loten	bow
beode, bede,	bæd, had, bed	buden,	boden, bœden	bid
bidde	bead	biden	beoden	—
for-beode	-bæd, -had,	buden	boden	forbid
cheose	chæs, ches	curen, chosen	coren, chosen	choose

PRES.	PRET.	PL.	P. P.	
fresc		—	fröfen	freeze
reose, rese	ræs, res	—		rush
leose	læs, les, lees, leas	loren, luren	loren	lose
scoþe	scþ	suden	soden	seethe
luke	læc, lok	luken	loken	lock
suke	sæc, soc	suken	soken	suck
buze, buwe	bæh, hah, beh, beih	buzen	bozen	bow, bend
drize	dreih, dreg	drozen	drozen, drohen	suffer
lize, leze, luze	læh, leh	luzen	lozen	lie
fleo	flæh, fleh, fleih	fluzen, fluwen	fluzen, flozen	fly
fleo	flæh, fleh, fleah, fleih, flei	flozen, flow- en, fluen	flozen, flowen	flee

THIRD PERIOD.

PRES.	PRET.	PL.	P. P.	
crepe	creap	cropen	cropan	creep
cleve	clef, cleef	clōven	cloven	cleave
brew	brew	browen	brown	brew
schete	schet, schot, scheat, sset	schoten	schoten, schotten	shoot
schuve	schef, schof	schoven	schoven	shove
brewe	brew	—	browen	brew
rewe	reu	—	—	rue
zeté	yhet, zet	zōten	zōten, zet(en)	pour
loute, lute, lote	leat	louten	louten, loten	bow
flete	flet	—	flōten	float
bede	bed, bad	boden	boden, beden	bid
seþe	seþ, seath, sod	soden	sōden, sodden	seethe
chesc, chese	ches, cheas	chōsen	chōsen, corn, coren	choose
	les, lyeas, lces	lesen, losen, loren	losen, loren, lorn	lose
frése	fres	frosen	frosen, froren	freeze
loke, luke	leac, lok	lōten	loken	look
a-buze, abowe	-beaz	-bowen	-bozen, -bowen	bow
lize	leigh	—	lowen	lie
fle, flize	fleh, fleh, flegh	flower	flower	fly
fle, fleze	flew, fleh, fley	flower	flower	flee
drize	dregh	—	—	suffer

Weak forms :—lost, lest, (bi)louted, bowed, lighed, fled, schette

FOURTH PERIOD.

PRES.	PRET.	PL.	P.P.	
crepe	crop (crope)	cropen	cropen	creep
soupe	soop, soj	—	sopen	sup
clve, cleve	cleef, clef	cloven, cleven	cloven	cleave
schove	schof	—	schoven	shove
brewe	brew	—	browen	brew
for-bede	-beed, -bad	-beden	-bouden, -biden, -beden	bid
sethe	seth	—	soden, sothen	seethe
zeete, yete	zot	—	goten	pour
schete	schfete	—	schoten	shoot
flete	flet, fleet, flot	—	—	float
chese	ches, chees, chos	chosen, chesen	chosen	choose
frese	frees, fres	frosen	frosen, froren	freeze
leese	les, lees	losen	losen, loren	lose
brouke	broke	—	—	brook (enjoy)
loke	lek	—	loken	lock
lije, lie	lei3	—	lowen	lie
flee, fle3e, flie3e	flei3, flew, flegn, fleight	flewen	flowen	fly
flee, flighe	flei3, flew	flowen	flowen	flee

(1) Weak preterites:—*brewede, sethede, zetide, zotte, schotte, fletide, lowtide, cheside, freside, leste, bowide, liede, fledde*.

(2) Weak p.p.:—*schot, cleft, lowfid, ldst, lest, lyed, fled, ylokked, bowid, soupide*.

CLASSIFICATION OF WEAK VERBS.

FIRST PERIOD.

Class I.

(1) *Radical short*.—The first class has the connecting vowel *e* (for prehistoric *i*, representing the stem-suffix *-io*), and contains verbs with short and long radical vowels (these having umlaut), as *ner-e-de* (perf.), *ner-ed* (p.p.).

(2) *Radical long*.—The connecting vowel is lost in the preterites of those verbs with long radicals.

INF.	PRER.	P.P.	
dæl-an	dæł-de	gedæł-ed	divide
mæn-an	mæn-de	mæn-ed	lament
læd-an	læd-de	læd-ed	lead
dēm-an	dēm-de	dēm-ed	deem
féd-an	féd-de	féd-ed	feed
&c.	&c.	&c.	

The preterite and p.p. of the following verbs retain the original radical vowel (*ó*) of the stem;—

sec-an	sóh-te	sóh-t	seek
réc-an	róh-te	róh-t	reck

(3) Stems ending in *mn*, *ng*, *rm*, *rn*, *ld*, *nd*, *rd*, lose the connecting vowel *e* in the preterite.

The preterites of stems in *mn* drop *n* before *de*.

nemn-an	nem-de	nemn-e-d	name
spreng-an	spreng-de	spreng-e-d	spring
bærn-an	bærn-de	bærn-e-d	burn
stýrm-an	stýrm-de	stýrm-e-d	storm

(4) Stems ending (through gemination) in *ll*, *mm*, *ss*, *dd*, *gg*, *co*, *pp*, (for *lj*, *mj*, *sj*, *dj*, *gj*, *cj*, *pj*), have no connecting vowel in the preterite.

wemm-an	wem-de	wemm-e-d	defile
cenn-an	cen-de	cenn-e-d	bring forth
spill-an	spil-de	spill-e-d	spill
áhredd-an	áhréd-de	áhredd-e-d	rescue
leg-an	leg-de	leg-e-d	lay

Some verbs in the preterite and p.p. retain the *radical* vowel (*a*) of the stem.

INF.	PRER.	P.P.	
cwell-an	cweal-de	cweal-d	kill
sell-an	seal-de	seal-d, -sald	sell
tell-an	teal-de	teal-d	tell
recc-an	reah-te	reah-t	reck
strecc-an	streh-te (streahte)	streh-t	stretch
wecc-an	weah-te	weah-t	arouse

In the following verbs (with stems in *lā*, *nd*, *rd*, *nt*, *rt*, *ft*, *st*, *ht*) the connecting vowel is lost, and the suffix *d* of the preterite is assimilated to the final dental of the stem, so that *d* + *de* = *de*.

INF.	PERF.	P. P.	
scild-an	scild-e	scild-ed	shield
send-an	send-e	send-ed	send
gyrd-an	gyrd-e	gyrd-ed	gird
stylt-an	stylt-e	stylt-ed	stand astonished
hyrt-an	hyrt-e	hyrt-ed	hearten
mynt-an	mynt-e	mynt-ed	purpose
hæft-an	hæft-e	hæft-ed	bind
riht-an	riht-e	riht-ed	set right
rest-an	rest-e	rest-ed	rest

D becomes *t*, when added to stems ending in *p*, *t*, *nc*, *s*, *x*.

dypp-an	dyp-te	dypp-ed	dip
sett-an	set-te	sett-ed, set	set
drenc-an	drenc-te	drenc-ed	drink
cyss-an	cys-te	cyss-ed	kiss
lîx-an	lîx-te	lîx-ed	shine

When *t* is added to stems in *cc*, the pret. and p.p. have only a single *h* before the suffix.

recc-an	reah-te	reah-t	teck
wecc-an	weah-te	weah-t	arouse
strecc-an	streaht-te	streaht-t	stretch

In verbs with long stems ending in a sharp mute, *d* in the pret. becomes *t*, as—

riþp-an	riþp-te	riþp-ed	reap
mêt-an	mêt-te	mêt-ed	meet

C becomes *h* before *t*, as—

tæc-an	tæh-te	tæh-t	teach
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Class II.

The second class of weak verbs has *o* for its connecting vowel, as *lufian*, to love; perf. *luf-o-de*; p.p. *luf-od*.

This *o* is weakened to *u*, *u*, and *e*, as:—

ðrowade = *ðrow-o-de*, suffered.
cleopade and *cleopede* = *cleopode*, called.
singude = *singode*, sinned.

SUBSEQUENT PERIODS.

In the Second and subsequent periods, the two conjugations are mixed up, because the connecting vowel *o* has become *e*.

In the earlier part of this period we find perfects in *-ode*, *-ude*, side by side with *-ede*; they are to be regarded as exceptional forms.

(1) *Radical short.*

SECOND PERIOD.

INF.	PRET.	P.P.	
sweven	swev-e-de	iswev-ed	sleep
þankien	þank-e-de	iþank-ed	thank

In the Third and Fourth periods we find *-id* and *-ud* in the preterite tense and passive participle, as well as *-ede*, *-de*.

The Fourth period keeps the connecting vowel *e*, but frequently drops *e* of the suffix *de*.

(2) *Radical long.*—The connecting vowel disappears in long syllable-stems, and *d* is added immediately to the verbal stem.

SECOND PERIOD.

INF.	PRET.	P.P.	
dælen	dæl-de, del-de	idel-ed	divide
demen	dem-de	idem-ed	deem
lenen	len-de	len-ed	lend
heren	her-de	iner-d	hear
læden, laden	led-de	ilæ-d, ile-d	lead
fedn	fed-de	ifed	feed

THIRD AND FOURTH PERIODS.

INF.	PRET.	P.P.	
dele	del-de	deled	divic
deme	dem-de	dem-d	deen
lede	led-de, lad-de	led, lad	lead
drede	dred-de, drad-de	dred, drad	drea
&c.	&c.	&c.	

(3) The suffix *d* assimilates to the *d* of the combination *-ld*, *-nd* (*-dd*)¹; *-rt*, *-st*, *-ht*, *-tt*.

SECOND PERIOD.

INF.	PRET.	P.P.	
bulden	bulde	buld	build
senden	sende	isend	send
wenden	wende	iwend ²	turn
setten	sette	iset	set
resten	reste	irest	rest
hurten	hurte	ihurt	hurt
casten	caste	icast	cast

THIRD PERIOD.

INF.	PRET.	P.P.	
bulden	bulde	ibuld	build
senden	sende	isend	send
casten	caste	icast	cast
setten	sette	iset	set
&c.	&c.	&c.	

In Northern writers we find *t* often replacing *d*, as—

sende	sent(e)	sent	send
wende	went(e)	went	wend, go

FOURTH PERIOD.

The *d* is now regularly converted into *t*, as—

INF.	PRET.	P.P.	
blenden	blente, blent	blent	blend

(4) The suffix *-d* is changed into *-t* after *p*, *f*, *ch*, *cch*, *ss*, *t*; *ch* becomes *h*(³) before *te*; *nch* becomes *ng* or is vocalised before *te*.

¹ Or we may consider that the *d* of *-ld*, *-nd*, &c. is dropped.

² In verbs of this class *Lazamon* often replaces *d* by *t*, as, *wenden*, *wente*, *iwent*.

SECOND PERIOD.

INF.	PRLT.	P.P.	
(1) kepen	kepte	ikept	keep
cussen	custe	icust	kiss
cutton	cutte	icut	cut
putten	putte	iput	put
ræcchen	ræhte, rahte	iraht	explain
{ cacchen	cahte	icaht	}
{ kecchen	keihte, cauhte	ikeiht	
tæchen	tafte	itaht	teach
smeccchen	smeihte	ismecched	taste, smack
lacchen	lahte	ilaht	seize
(2) drenchen	drengte, dreinte	adreint	drench
mengen	meingte	imeind	mingle

In the following verbs there is a return to the radical vowel of the stem :—

(3) { sæchen	sohte	isoht	}	seek
{ sechen	souhte	isouht		
recchen	rohhte (rehte)	iroht		reck
{ strecchen	streahte (streihte)	istreichht		stretch
{ strenchen				
tellen	talde, tolde	itald, itold, teld		tell
sellen	sælde, salde,	iseld, isald, isold		sell
	solde			

THIRD PERIOD.

INF.	PRLT.	P.P.	
(1) kepen	kepte	ikept, kept	keep
lefen	lefte (left)	ileft, left	leave
refen	refte (rest)	ireft, rest	(be)reave
wefen	wefte (west)	iwest, west	weave
cacchen	cahte	icaht, aht	catch
drenchen	cleinte, clente	icleint, iclent	clench
techen	taugte, teigte,	itauht, tauht	teach
	taugte (taght)		
(2) drenchen	dreynte	dreynt	drown
(3) sechen	sohte, souhte	isoht, soht	seek
	(souht)		
rechen	rohhte	—	reck
rechen	rauhhte, reigte,	—	reach
	rauhhte, raughte		
tellen	tolde, tald	itold, told, wold,	tell
		told	
sellen	solde	isold, sold	sell

The *Ayenbite* keeps the old *ea* as:—

INF.	PRET.	P.P.	
telle	tealde	yteald, lald	tell
zelle	zealde	yzald, zald	sell

FOURTH PERIOD.

	INF.	PRET.	P.P.	
(1)	kepen	kepte (kepide)	kept	keep
	leeven, leven	lefte, lasfe (laft)	left, laft	leave
	refen	refte, rafte (raft)	raft (refed)	be-reave
	greten	gfette	gret	greet
	sweten	swatte, swette	swet, swat	sweat
	meeten	mette	met	meet
	kessen	keste, kiste	kest, kist	kiss
	twicchen	twight(e)	twight	twitch
	picchen	pight(e)	pight	pitch
	pliechen	plight(e)	plight	pluck
	techen	tauste, tauzte	taust, tauzt	teach
	cacche	causte, caught	caust, caught	catch
	lachen	lauhte	lauzt	chaze
(2)	blenchen	bleynt(e), blent(e)	—	blench
	quenchen	queinte	queint	quench
	drenchen	dreint(e)	dreint	drench

The *g* in *ng* becomes vocalised before the suffix *d* or *t*.

	INF.	PRET.	P.P.	
	sprengen	spreynde, spreynthe, spreynt	spreyned	sprinkle
	mengen	sprengide meynde, meynte, myngede	—	single
	sengen	(seynde)	seynd, seind	singe
(3)	sechen	souhte	souzt	seek
	be-sechen	-souhte	-souzt	beck
	recchen	rouhte, roughte, rauste	raust, rouzt	reck
	reche	rauste	raust	reach
	strecche	strauhte, strauzte	straught, strauzt	stretch
	biggen	bouhte	bouzt	buy
	sneken	snaughte	—	smack
	tellen	tolde, telde	told, teld, tald	tell
	sellen	soolte, selde, solde, salde	sold, sold, sald	sell

Anomalous forms are treated along with their modern representatives; see ANOMALOUS VERBS, pp. 264 ff.

ADVERBS.

I. Substantive.

(a) GENITIVE.

First period.—*Dæges* (of a day), *forð-dæges* (late in the day), *summeres* and *winteres* (summer and winter), *nihtes* (of a night), *nēades* (needs), *sōðes* (of a truth), &c.

Second period.—*Forðdaies*, *dæies* (*deies*), *nihtes*, “*adāy* and *nyhtes*” (*dæies* and *nihtes*), *lifes* (alive), *deathes* (dead), *nedes* (needs), *winteres*, *summeres*, *willes* (willingly), *walðes* (purposely), *unwalðes* (accidentally), *sōðes* (of a truth), *his þonkes* (of his own accord), *hwiles* (*hwils*), *the hwiles*, *oðerhwiles* (sometimes), *summeres weis*, *oðres weis* (*oðerweis*), *nanes weis*, *alles weis*, *allegates* (always), *sōðrihtes* (truly), *halfinges* (by half), &c.

Third Period.—*Dayes*, *nyhtes*, *aniztes*, *þonkes*, *unþonkes*, *nedes*, *hwiles*, &c.

Fourth. Period.—*Adayes*, *nedes*, *other-weies*, *algates* (always), *eggelinges*, *hedlynges* (headlong), *noselynges*, *sidelonges*, *grovelonges*, &c.

(b) DATIVE AND INSTRUMENTAL.

First Period.—*Hwilum* (whilom), *stundum* (at times), *dagum* (by day), *nahtum* (by night), *stundmælum* (by little times, at spare times), *næhtum* (nightly), &c.

Second Period.—*Nede* (of necessity), *hwilum* (*hwilum*, *hwilen*, *whilen*), *wuke-mælum* (weekly), *drope-mele* (drop-meal), *lim-mele* (limb-meal), *wunder* = *wundrum* (wonderfully).

Third Period.—*Whilom*, *while*, *lym-mele*, *pecemele*, *stunde-mele*, *wonder*, *cuppemele*, *poundmele*, *floc-mele* (by companies).

Fourth Period.—*Whilom*, *gobletmele*, *pecemel*, *by pecemele* (piece-meal), *hipyll-melum* (by heaps), *stoundmeel*, *lym-mele*, *parcel-mele*, &c.

(c) ACCUSATIVE.

First Period.—*Hām* (home), *east*, *west*, *sūð*, *norð*, *ealne weg* (alway), *ðā hwile* (whilst), *sume hwile* (somewhile), *dēl*, *sumne dēl* (somedez?), *wiht*, *ā-wiht* (something, somewhat), *ððre wisan* (otherwise), *sume wisan* (somewise), *sðð* (truth), *nānigðing* (nought), &c.

Second Period.—*Hām*, *hom*, *norð*, *east* (æst), *suð*, *west*, *sumedale*, *sumdel*, *what-gate*, *allegate*, *oper-gate*, *þeo hwile* (the while), *otherhwile*, *sumewhile*, *oper* (= otherwise), *fulsoð*, *eaqwiht* (aught), &c.

Third Period.—*Hom*, *norþ*, *est*, *west*, *soiþ*, *somidel*, *oʒt*, *ilka dele*, *alwei*, *alnewey*, *often-ȝide*, *sumhwile*, *operhwile*, *thus-gate*, *allegate*, *swagate*, &c.

Fourth Period.—*Hom*, *algate* (allegate), *alway*, *sometime*, *somdel*, *somdele*, *gætdel*, *everydel*, *auzt*, *operwise*, &c.

(d) PREPOSITIONAL FORMS.

First Period.—*On weg* (away), *on bæc*, *underbæc* (aback), *on-gea* (against, opposite); *toġeanes* (against), *tō-æfenes* (in the evening), *on-dæge* (a-day), *on-niht* (anight), *tō-dæge* (to-day), *tō-nihte* (to-night), *on ærne mærgen* (early mornings), *on morgen* (a-mornings), *on midne-dæg* (at mid-day), *adūne* (down), *on midre nihte* (at mid-night), &c.

Second Period.—*Umbe-stunde*, *umbe-hwile* (at intervals); *bysydes*, *biside*, *bisiden*, *biside*, *bi-daye*, *bi-nyhte*; *bihælves* (beside); *bilife*, *bilifes* (quickly); *adun* (down), *a-ba*, *on-ȝen*, *aȝen*, *aȝein*, *tō-ȝeines* (against, towards), *adaȝ*, *adai*, *aniht*, *an-hond*, *an-efne* (at eventide), *an-ende*, *on-ende* (lastly); *a-lyw*, *a-marwe*, *a-marȝen*, *a-morwe*, *a-morȝe* (a-morrow); *arȝwen* (arow), *a seoven nihte* (a sennight); *aslepe*, *awei*, *awai* (away); *an erne morew* (on early morrow); *on live*, *a þes half* (on this side of); *aslæpe* (asleep); *on nihtes*, *atten ende*, *aȝ þen ende* (at last); *at morwhen*, *at morwen*, *to-marhen*, *to-morwe*, *to-marewene*, *to-niht*, *to-dæie*, *to-ȝere*, *to-sumere*, &c., *to-soðe* (truly), *bi dages*, *by nyhtes*, &c.

Third Period.—*Abak*, *adout*, *afelde*, *agrund*, *alonde*, *away*, *amorewe*, *anyzt*, *accynter*, *dyen*, *ayenquard*, *an haste*, *an hond*, *on hize*, *onlive*, *on vyztes*, *on dayes*, *on morwe*, *on peces*; *bilife*, *bilyve*, *biside*, *bysydes*, *bicas*, *becas* (accidentally), *attenende*, *bystorpe*, *bysoupe*, *by este*, *by weste*, *uphâp*, *upon hast*, *fôrcas*, *forsope*, *to-day*, *to-nyzt*, *to-morn*, *teve* (*to-eve*), *insped* (speedily), *at ese*, &c.

Fourth Period.—*Umbe-stoundes*, *iv-stoundes* (at intervals), *um-hwile*, *adoun*, *abak*, *asyde* (*asidishalf*), *afire*, *azen*, *amorewe*, *anight*, *afote* (*on fote*), *arow*, *aslope*, *on egge* (on edge), *onsydes*, *on sidishand* (aside), *a-dregh*, *o-dregh*, *on-drez* (aside); *beforehand*, *to-morwe*, *to-morn*, *to-zere*, &c.

II. Adjective.

(1) With final -e.

First Period.—*Fæst-e*, *hlid-e*, *biter-lic-e*, &c.

Second Period.—*Feste*, *hlide*, *ille*, *usele*, *depe*, *swipe*, *vastliche*, *bliþelike*, *baldeliþ*, &c.

Third Period.—*Wide*, *side*, *dere*, *depe*, *harde*, *uneþe*, *nobliche*, &c.

In the Northern dialects we find *-like* and *-ly* for *-liche*.

Fourth Period.—*Faste*, *fulle*, *righte*, *hevenlich*, *hevenliche*, *scharþly*, *passendli*, *felenþly*, &c.

(2) In the comparative and superlative degrees, adjectives (First period) end in *-or* and *-ost*, without any other inflexion, as *geornor* (more diligent), *fæstor* (faster), *eaðelicor* (more easily), *heartost* (hardest), *eaðelicost* (easiest). Some few comparatives drop the suffix, as *leng* (longer), *bet* (better), *ma* (more), *ép* (easier).

In the subsequent periods, adverbs form their comparatives in *-ere* (*-er*, *-or*, *-ur*); superlatives in *-este* (*-est*).

The comparative of words in *-liche* becomes—

(a) *-liker*, *-luker*, *-loker*, *-laker*.

(b) *-tyer*.

The superlative of adjectives in **-liche** ends in—

(a) **-likest, -lukest, -loſest, -lakest.**

(b) **-lyest.** Cp. *depliſer, gerenlukor, deorluker, bliſeloker, fellaſer* (more fiercely), &c.

In the Fourth period **-lyer** predominates.

We also find as late as Chaucer the shortened comparatives **bet, mo, leng.**

(3) Many adjectives are used as adverbs, especially those with irregular comparisons.

First Period.—*Wela, wel* (well), *yfele* (ill), *lytle, lytlum* (little), *micles, miclum* (much), *nean, nill* (nigh, near), *feor* (far), *forð* (forth), *late, latan* (late), *bet* (better), *þe bet* (the better), *betst* (best), *wyrs* (worse), *wyrst* (worst), *þy lés* (the less), *má* (more), &c.

Subsequent Periods.—*Ufſle, uwele, ille* (ill), *lite, lyte, lytyl, beſt, best, worse, wurst, lasse, lesse, lest, ma, mare, more, &c., fer, neor, ner, nerre, nyz, nexst, nest, forth, forther, late later, latst, ner þe later, never the later, &c.*

(4) Case-endings :—

(a) GENITIVE.

First Period.—*þweorhes* (across), *ealles* (altogether), *efnes, emnes* (evenly), *micles* (greatly), *elles* (else), &c.

Adverbs in **-weards** (-wards), &c.

Second Period.—*Alles, elles, rihtes, duvel-rihtes* (dive), *adunrihtes, alrihtes, ananrihtes, forðrihtes, þerrihtes, upwardes, hiderwardes, forðwardes, eftsones, mucheles, cwices* (alive), *alunges* (altogether), *adunwardes, azeinwardes, &c.*

Third Period.—*Alles, elles, eftsones, amiddes, riztes, dounriztes, aweinwardes* (away), &c.

Fourth Period.—*Elles, unepes, uniwæres, hiderwardes, upwardes, forwardes, halfinges, endlonges, afterwardes, towardes, uprihtes, &c.*

(b) DATIVE.

First Period.—*Lytlum* (little), *midum* (greatly, much), *furpum* (even); &c.

Second Period.—*Lutlen*, *lytlen*, *mucheles*, *forþe*, *seldum*, *selden*, *selde*, *ane* (alone), &c.

Third Period.—*Lytlen*, *mucheles*, *moche*, *selde*, *selden*, *one*, &c.

Fourth Period.—*Lytlen*, *lytlum*, *muche*, *muchel*, &c.

(c) ACCUSATIVE.

First Period.—*Ær* (ere), *eal* (all), *neah* (nigh), *nôh*, *genôh* (enough), *feor* (far), *lyt*, *lytel*, *riht*; adverbs in *-weard* (ward), &c.

Second Period.—*Al*, *ær*, *er*, (ere); *a-neoh*, *neh* (nigh), *inoð* (enough); *hiderward*, *zeondward*, *binward* (within), *þiderward*, *forþward*, *forðriht*, *anonriht*, *aweeward*, *amidde-ward*, &c.

Third Period.—*Al*; *er*, *ar*, *or* (ere); *neh*, *ny*, *fist*, *fer*, *ynoz*, *imydward*, *þiderward*, *cwkeward* (= wrongly), *forþriht*, &c.

Fourth Period.—*Al*; *er*, *or*; *negh*, *ny*; *afer*, *riht*, *ynow*; *estward*, *to-ward*, &c.

(d) PREPOSITIONAL.

First Period.—*On-middum* (amidst), *on-esen* (anent), *on-þweorð* (across), *on-geador* (together), *on-idel* (in vain), *on-sundrum* (asunder), *on-eorrost* (in earnest), *to-middes* (amidst), *to-weardes* (towards), *to-gædere* (together), *to-somme* (together), *qfer-eall* (everywhere), *æt-gædere* (together), *be anfealdum* (singly), &c.

Second Period.—*Amidden* (amid), *amiddeles*, *a-neah* (nigh), *a-widere* (against), *a-newist*, *a-newest* (fast by, near), *riht*, *anheh* (on high), *alast*, *anewe*, *an-anriht*, *on*

widere (against), *on-sunder*, *on oþer* (otherwise), *on-idel*, *in-idel*, *to-samen*, *to-somme*, *to-gæderes*, *togedere*; *to-gode* (gratuitously), *overal*, *of lah* (from below), *of feor*, *of feorren* (afar), *of heh* (from on high), *mid-rihte* (rightly), *atte laste*, &c.

Third Period.—*Alast*, *alefte*, *amidde*, *a.niddes*, *in-middes*, *anhey*, *on he*, *an heiz*, *on heiz*, *abrod*, *abrood*, *on-ferrum*, *an even* (at last), *anazt* (to nought), *to gedere*, *togederc*, *togederes*, *overal*, *uppo*, *heiz*, *at al*, *at alle* (in all things = *alles*), *at alle riztes*, *anonriztes*, *to-riztes*, *upriztes*, *at arst*, *atte fulle*, *ate laste*, *atte laste*, *atte best*, *ate verst* (at first), *clbidene*, *bydene* (= immediately), &c.

Fourth Period.—*Abrood*, *alarge*, *afer*, *aferre*, *anhez*, *in melle*, *amel* (a.nid), *on rounde*, *in myddes*, *in mydde*; *in seme* (together), *on rizt*, *on-wyde*, *to-geder*, *in-idel*, *al*, *at þe fulle*; *overthwart*, *endlongs*, *endlonges*, &c.

III. Numeral.

First Period.—*Æne* (once), *æninga*, *æn-unga* (entirely), *on-æn* (continually, once for all), *for æn* (for ever), *on æne* (at same time, together), *twiwa* (twice), *betwið* (between), *þriða*, *þriwa* (thrice), &c.

Second Period.—*Æne*, *ænes*, *ænes*, *twies*, *tweien*, *tweie*, *þrizes*, *at anes*, *at eanes*, *unsipe* (once), *anan*, *a'onan*, *a twa*, *a two*, *on twinne*, *on þre*, *betweonc*, *betwenen*, *bitwixen*, *to þan ane*, *to þan anes*, *for þe nanes*, *for þan æne*, &c.

Third Period.—*Æne*, *ones*, *enes*, *anes*, *twie*, *thrie*, *twyes*, *thries*, *anon*; *in æn* (continually), *at one*, *at on*, *at ene*, *atwo*, *a þre*, *atwinne*, *asevene*, *bytweyne*, *for þe nones*, &c.

Fourth Period.—*Ænes*, *ones*, *twyes*, *thries*, *twye*, *three*, *anoon*, *ato*, *in two*, *in on*, *atone*, *at ene*, *after on*, *bytweene*, *for þe nones*, &c.

IV. Adverbs formed from Particles.

FIRST PER.	SECOND PER.	THIRD PER.	FOURTH PER.
æft, eft	eft	eft	efte, eft
after	after, aſter	after	aſtre, after
afterward	afterward (adv. & prep.)	afterward	—
—	—	afterþan ^{we}	—
æftan	—	nevereft	—
wið-æftan	—	—	—
be-æftan	bi-æftan, bæftan	—	baft
bi, big	bi, be	by, bi, be	by, be
—	—	—	for-by
fore	fore	fore	—
—	forn-on, forn-an (as before)	—	—
foran	fo'en	—	—
be-foran	bi-foren, bivoren	bivoren, biforen, byfore, befo'ra	heforn, byfore, biforen
—	—	—	—
tó-foran	—	—	—
wið-foran	—	—	—
—	avoreward	—	—
forð	forð, vð, ð	fo. th, vorth	forth
—	forð-rihte	—	—
—	forð-ward	forð-ward	—
—	—	forth-with	—
—	ſwire-forð	—	—
—	for-to, for-te, vorte	forta, fort	—
—	—	æer-forþ	—
—	—	þer-forþ	—
—	forðþat	—	—
geo, in	—	—	—
geond	3ond	be-3ende, bi-3onde, bi-3unde	bi3onde, bi3orfen
—	3eondward	yondward	—
her	her, her	her, h re	her, here
hider	hider	hider, huder	hider
hidres	—	—	—
—	hiderward	—	—
—	—	—	hitherward

FIRST PER. SECOND PER. THIRD PER. FOURTH PER.

linan, heopāne, heonane, heonone, heona	heonne	henne, hennes	hennen, henech, hennes, henne, hen, hennus, hennis, hens	hence
—	{ heþen heþen-waꝥd	heþen	heþen	hence henceforth, hencefor- ward
—	heonneuorð, hennoforð	fra heþen	fro hennes	from hence henceforth
hindan, hinder, hindweard	—	hindward	hindeward	hindward
behindan	bihinden	byhynde	behinde	behind
hwat (what)	mesthwæt (almost), alse wat se (as soon as)	alhuæt (until), ney-wat (nearly)	—	—
—	monilwat	—	—	nany-what
hwar, hwær	hwer, wær, whær, whære	where, were	wher, wore	where
—	—	elles wei	—	elsewhere
—	ichwer	—	—	eachwhere
hwæder, hwider, hwyder	hwuder	wyder, whider	whider, where	whither
—	whiderward	whiderwaꝥd	—	whitherward
—	elleswhider, elles hwar other hwar	—	—	elsewhere
hwanan, hwana, ghwone, nene	wonene, hwonene, wheþen	wanne, wheðen	whennes, whens, from whennes	whence, from whence
—	whenceward	—	—	whence-ward
ghwær, ahwær, gehwær	eꝥhwær, aithwære, owhar, uwher, ihwet	owhar	owwhar, owhere, aywhere	anywhere, everywhere
—	—	nou, nowhar	—	nowhere

FIRST PER.	SECOND PER.	THIRD PER.	FOURTH PER.	
seld-hwonne	seldhwonne, seklen, sekde, seldum	selden, selde	selde	seldom
in	in	in, yn	in	in
innan	inne	inne, ine	ine	in
binnan	binnen, binne, bine, an inne	bin	—	within
—	inwardes	—	—	izward, within
wiðinnan	wiðinnen, wiðinne, inwið	wiþinnen, wiþinne, inwiþ	wiþinne, inwiþ	within
mid	mid, mæðe	mid	—	with
midæalle	midalle	midalle, wiþalli	wiþal	withal, altogether, wholly
nidor, niðer	neoðer, niðer	neðer	neðer	neither
niðan	neoðan	—	—	from beneath
be-nyðan	binoðen, binezen, bineaðen, bineoðe	beneþe, bineþen, bineþe	bineþen, bineþe, beleþe	beneath
neoðeward	neoþer-ward, neþeward	—	—	nether-ward
nu	nu	now, nou	now	now
on	on	on	on	on
of	of	of	of	of
swá	swa, swa, so, se	swa, sa, sq. se	so, se	so
eal-swá	alswa, alswo, also, also, als	alswa, also, alsa, also, asc, als	also, als, as	as
swylce (as if)	swilce	—	—	—
tó	to, te	to	to	to
—	for to, for to.	—	—	for to
—	(before infin.)	—	—	—
—	ever-te, ever-to,	—	—	—
—	ever as yet)	—	—	—
—	never-te	—	—	—
—	(never as yet),	—	—	—
—	never-to	—	—	—
—	—	til and sta	til and sta	to and fro
þær	þer, þar, þur	þer, þere, þer, þere	þer, þare, þer, þar, þore	there
þæder, þider	þider	þider, þuder	þider	thither
þiderwærd	þiderward	þiderward	þiderward	thitherward
þiderwærdes	—	—	—	thitherward

FIRST PER. SECOND PER. THIRD PER. FOURTH PER.

panon, ponon	ponene, panene, panne	panne, panne	panne, panne	thence
panne, panne	panne, panne	panne, panne	panne, panne, pan,	then
pá	pa, po	pa, po	po	than
—	pepen,	pepen	pepen, pien	thence
—	pepenford	—	—	thenceforth
núðá	núpe, nyben	noupe	noupe	now, now then
þæs (so, very)	þes	—	—	—
tó þam, tó þon	—	—	—	—
(so, very)	—	—	—	—
þus	þus	þus, þous	þus	thus
þurh	þurh, þurch	þorh, þorgl	þorgl	through
—	þureh	þurf	þurgh, þorow	through
—	thurh-ut	—	—	thoroughout
under	under	under	under, undre	under
—	—	—	from undre	from under
úp	up	up	up	up
—	upwardes	—	—	upward
—	upward	—	—	upward
ufan	—	—	—	above
ufanan	ovenan	—	—	above
hufan	huven, huve	huve	huve	above
ábufan	abufen, bibufen	aboven, above, abuve	above, aboven	above
wið-ufan	—	—	—	above
on-ufan	—	—	—	above
ufan-ward	—	ovenward	—	above
ufeweard	uwewar	—	—	upward
eal mæst	—	almost	almost	almost
ofer	over	over	over	over
út, úte	ut, ute, uten	out	out	out
—	utwardes	—	—	outward
bútan	abepten, abu- ten, abute	abouten, aboute	abouten, aboute	about
ymb-útan	—	—	—	—
útan-ymb	—	—	—	—
útan-ym	—	—	—	—
—	wið-uten, uten-wið, ute-wið	wiputen, wipoute, wipwith	wiputen, wiput, ouwith	without
wið	wið	wip	—	against
wiðer	—	—	wiper (opposite)	—
—	wip and wip	—	—	—

FIRST PER.	SECOND PER.	THIRD PER.	FOURTH PER.
þær-ábútan	þær-abúten, þær-abúteh	þær-aboutē	thereabout
—	þær-binnen	—	therewithin
—	þær-bi, þær-bi	þærbi	thereby
þær-æfter	þær (þær), -æfter, þær- after	þær-after	thereafter
—	—	þær ney, þær neih	there nigh
—	—	þær-afterward	thereafter
—	—	þær biſide	there beſide
þær-inne	þær-inne, þær-inne, þær-ahinne, þær-an, þær-in	þær-inne	therein
þær-mid	þær-mide, þær-mid	þærmid	therewith
þær-of	þær-of, þær-offe; þær-offen	þær-of	thereof
þær-on	þær-on, þær-on, þær-on, þær-on	þær-on	thereon
þær-tó	þær-to, þær-til	þærto, þær-til	thereto
þær-tógænes	þær-aæn, þær-to-æaines, þær-to-yeynes	þær-teyenes	thereagainſt
þær-uſan	þær-oæn, þær-uſenan	—	thereabove
—	þær-ofær	þær-over	thereover
—	þær-uþon	þær-uþon	thereupon
—	þær-vore, þær (þær)-fore	þær-fore, þær-vore	therefore
þær-úte	þær-uten, þær-ute, þær-ute	þær-out, þær-oute	thereout
—	þær-buten	—	therewithout
—	þær-þurh, þær-þurh	þær-þrogh	therethrough
þær-wið	þær-wið, þær-wið	þær-wiþ	therewith
—	þær-wyþ-al	þær-wiþ-al	therewithal
—	þær-under	—	thereunder
—	þær-under	—	—
—	þær-fra, þær-fra, þær-from	þær-fro, þær-from	therefrom
—	þær-uppe, þær-uppe	þær-upon	thereupon
—	þær-at	þær-at	thereat

As in Third Period.

FIRST PER.	SECOND PER.	THIRD PER.	FOURTH PER.
—	þer-anunder, þor-under	—	thereunder
—	þer-imong, þer-among, þor-mong	þeramong	there among
—	—	þar-into	thereinto
—	—	þer-to-fore	theretofore
—	þer-towað	—	toward that
hēr-æfter	her-æfter	her-after	herafter
—	her-bi	—	hercafter
—	her-mið	her-mið, her-wiþ	herewith
—	her-of, -offe	her-of	herof
—	her on	her-on	heron
—	her-fore	her-for, her-fore	herfore
—	her-to	—	hereto
—	her-out	her-out	hereout
—	her-wiðinnen	her-inne	herein
—	her-þurh	—	here-through
—	whar-inc, wa-inc	hwar-ynne	wherein
—	quor-at	—	whereat
—	whæron	hwer-on, hwer-on	whereon
—	—	hwer-of, whar-of	wherof
—	hwer-wið	hwer-næde, hwarwiþ	wherewith
—	hwar-to, hwer-to	—	whereto
—	hwar-fore	—	wherefore
—	hwar-þurh	—	wherethrough
—	—	hwer-l	whereby
—	—	hwer-onder	whereunder
—	—	hwer-oppe	whereupon
hwí ne	hwí ne	quin, quine, whine	O that

PREPOSITIONS.

I. Prepositions Proper.

FIRST PER.	SECOND PER.	THIRD PER.	FOURTH PER.
æfter, æft	æfter, æftere, after, efter	after	æftre, after 'after
—	afterward	—	—
bæftan, be-æftan	bæftan, biaften, baften, bieften	—	baft behind, after
wið-æftan, and	—	—	— behind with, in
æt	æt, at, et	at	at
bi, be	bi, by, be	bi, by, be	bi, by, be
for, fore	fore, for, vor	for, vor, fore	for, vor
foran	foren, for-bi	—	forbi
æt-foran	at-, et-foren,	atvore	— before
bi-foran, be-foran	biforen	byforen, biðore, hivore	bifon, before, beforn, beforen
on-foran	aforen	—	afore
to-foran	tofore, toforen	tofore, tovore	to fore
wið-foran	—	—	—
forth (adv.)	forþe (prep. = beyond)	—	without-forth (= outside of)
—	—	—	even-forth, em-forth, ferforth
fram	from, vrom	from	from
frommard	—	—	froward
—	fro, fra	fro, fra	fro, fra
giond, geond	geond, giond, gond	geond	—
(fram)geon- dan	—	—	—
be-geond, be-geon- dan	biþende, biþonden	biþonde, biþende	beþonde, biþonðe
wið-geondan	—	—	—
be-heo- dan	bihinden	behynde	befynde
in	in, innen	inne, ine	in
innan	inne, innan	—	—
			forth = forth from (in Shakspeare) according to the ex- tent of from forward from through, after from beyond over, by beyond beyond this side of behind in in, within

b-innan	binnen, bine, binne	bin		within
wið-innan	wipinnen, wipinne, in-wi	wybinne	withinne, within, in with	within
—	inne midde-ward	amidward	—	amid
mid	mid	mid	mid	with
—	on-midden	amiddes, imyd, imyddes	—	in the middle of
neoðan	—	—	—	beneath
be-neoðan	binneþe, bineþen, binoben	bineþe, beneþe	beneþe	beneath
under-neoðan	underneþe	underneþe	underneþe	underneath
of	of	of	of	from, off
on	on, o, an, a	on, an, a	on, an, a	on, in
on innon	—	—	—	within, into
inne on	an inne	—	—	within, into
up + on	up on, an uppe	upon	upon, in upon	upon ¹
oð, oð in	aþet = oð þæt	o þæt	—	until, unto
tó	to	to, alto (unto) to	to	to, for, to
til (Northumbrian)	til	til	til	to
—	—	unto	unto	unto
—	forte (forto)	forte, vort, fort	—	until
into	into	into	into	into
—	intil	intil, antil	intil, until	into, until
b-ufan	bueen, boue, bufen, buue	—	buee	above
—	a-bufen	above, aboven, aboune, oboven	above, aboven	above, over
on-ufan	oven an, nyenen, ovenon	—	—	from above
—	—	ap-oue-ward, an-ou-ward	—	upon, over
—	—	on	—	at the top of
ofer	ofer, over	over	over	over, above

Upon (prep.) = *up* (adv.) + *on* (prep.), not O. E. *uppan*, *uppen*, *upfe*.

FIRST PER.	SECOND PER.	THIRD PER.	FOURTH PER.
			at-over, at- above
úþ (adv.)	up	up, op,	up
úþþan	upþan, upþen, upþe, upþe, upþo, upþon	upþe, up, op, oþe	upþe up
on-úþþan	an-upþe, on- upþe, an- upþon	—	upon
under	under	under	under
—	anunder	—	anunder
útan	ute	out, out-of	out
bútan (= be- útan)	búten, bute ¹	bute, hote,	bute, but, bot
on-bútan	abutan	abúte, aboute, boute,	about,
á-bútan	abuten	oboute	aboute
wið-útan	wiðuten, wið-ute, utwiþ, utewiþ, wiþutan	withouten, withoute, outwith	withouten, withoute, outwith
yíno-útan	—	—	—
útan-ymbe	—	ute over (above)	—
—	þurh-ut	thorgh out	thurgout
wið	wið ²	with	with
—	forð-wið	forþ-wiþ	—
wider (against)	—	—	—
ymbe, ymb,	unben, embe,	enve, umbe,	umbe (about)
embe, emb	umbe	umbe-moug	um- only as
		(about, round about)	prefix to verbs
þurh	þurh, þurch, þurch	þurh, þors, þurþ, þurf	thorgh, thorþ, thorgh, thorow
—	—	þoru-out	—
			throughout

¹ The Middle E. *bute* = without, except.

² In the Second period *with* often signifies *from*, *by*, and has also the sense of our *with*. In the Third and Fourth periods it takes altogether the place of the older *mid*. In the First period *wið* = with, opposite, against, from, beside, along, &c.

II. Compound Prepositions.

(a) SUBSTANTIVE.

FIRST PER.	SECOND PER.	THIRD PER.	FOURTH PER.
éac (in addition to)	ek, ec (adv.)	ek, eke (adv.)	eke, ek (adv.) eke
to-éacan	to-eke (adv.), teke (adv.), tekan (adv.)	berteke (adv.)	thereto
on-gegn	on-gein,	gáyn, azen,	azen, ázen, against,
on-gén,	on-gein,	azein,	azens, towards
on-géan,	on-geines,	azein,	azeines, (opposite)
á-géan,	azen, anzen,	ázain,	ayens,
á-gén	azen, ozen,	ázaine,	azeinst,
	azeines,	ogain,	ayenst
	azenes,	ázaines,	
	yeynes	ayen,	
—		ayans, aye	
		avoreye,	— over against
		avorye,	
		(against,	
		towards)	
tó gegnes,	to-geine,	to-geins,	to-azens against
tó-génes,	to-geines,	to-geins	
tó-géanes,	to-geines,		
	to-geine,		
	to-yeynes,		
ge-mang,	imeng, imong,	among,	among, among,
on-gemang,	among,	omang,	amonges, amongst
on-mang,	among,	amonges,	
á-mang,	bimong,	imang,	amonges,
	imang,	umbe-	
		mong	
be-noiðan	—	bynorth	by north north of
be-éastan	bi esten	by este	by este east of
be-westau,	biwesten	by weste	by weste west of
be-súðan	—	by souþe ¹	— south of
—	bi-side,	byside,	byside, beside,
	bisiden,	bysides	bysides besides
	bisides		
be-healfe	bihalf, bihalves,	—	— besides (on
	bihalves		this side
			of), on be-
			half of
—	—	inside of	inside of instead of

¹ In the provincial dialects we find *besouth*, *be west*, &c. In the Second period these forms are also used adverbially.

FIRST PER.	SECOND PER.	THIRD PER.	FOURTH PER.
á-dún	adun, dun þurh dynt (with gen.)	dun ^{at} doun thorgh dynt of, with dynt of	down, adown by dint of
—	—	be wey of	by way of
on-lyfte (adv.)	o-lofte (adv.)	aloft (adv.)	aloft (Shak- speare)
—	—	toppe (above)	—

(b) ADJECTIVE.

ær	—	er, ar, or	er, ere, or	ere, before
feor	—	—	—	far from
unfeor	—	—	—	not far from
gehende (cp. O. Sax. at-handum, at hand)	ihende	hende (adv.)	hende, ende	handy to, near to
néah	neh	ney	nyz, nygh	nigh, nigh to
néar	—	—	ner, nerre	nearer, nearer to, near, near to
néahst	néah	next, nest	next (= next to)	next, next to
néah-hand (nearly)	—	nehand	ner hond	near
néawiste	aneoweste, ancouste	—	—	by, near
tó-wearc	toward, toward	toward	toward	toward
tó-weardes	adune-ward	—	towards	towards ¹
—	after-ward	—	—	down
—	from-ward	framward	fromward	after
—	fromword, fraward	—	—	from
—	—	upward	—	(upwards of)
wana	wane, wane, awane	—	—	minus
and-lang, ond-long,	on-longen, an-long, inlanges	endelong, endlang	along, endelong endlonges	along
ge-long, pre- ceded by prep. on	ilang, ilong, preceded by prep. on	along (on)	along (of)	all 'long of, along of

¹ In the Second period we find *towards* (adv.) = about to come, future; Shakespeare uses *toward* in the same sense.

FIRST PER.	SECOND PER.	THIRD PER.	FOURTH PER.
on middan	on mættlen, imiddel		amid
on-middum	amidden, amidde, amideward	amydde, amid, mydde, amidward	amyddis, amyddes, amidde
tó-middes	—	in þe middes of	in þe middis of
on-middelt	—		in þe myddil of, in þe myddylle of amel, ymel, ¹ omell,
þe-twih, be-tweoh, betwuh, betuh (betuihs, betweohs), betweox, betwux,	bitwihan, bituhhen, bituhhe, bituh bitwisan, bitwixe, bitwixen, bitwixte, bitwix	betufex, bitwix	bitwixe, betwixen, betwixt, bytwyste
			a-twixt (Spenser)
be-twéonum, be-twýnum	bitweonen, bitwine, bitwene, bitwenen	bytweon bitwene	betwen, bytweone
efene, efne (adv.), nefne, nemne (except), tó-emnes, tó-efnes (along, evenly)	æfne (upon, even with),	en ðe, efne, aræmn, &c. (adv.)	even, evenly
on-efn, on-ern	on efn (adv. in Laz.), anundes, anont, onor., on-oude, onefent	onence, anente, anendes	anent, anens, ² anent, anentis, anemptis, anentist, ancynst, anende

¹ O.N. *á meðel*, a middle; Dan. *imellem*; Swed. *emellan*.

² *Anon* to = even (as *anent* in the Third period); cp.

“Alle (h)is clothes caste of everichon

Anon to is scerte.—*Legends of Holy Rood*, pp. 54, 55.

FIRST PER.	SECOND PER.	THIRD PER.	FOURTH PER.	
—	—	—	en forþ	according to
—	—	—	evenesforþ ¹ (adv.)	according to
on-fast	onfest, onfast, anfest, faste bi	—	faste by	fast by
—	supþhe, siþþe þwer-t-ut (O.N. þvert)	supþe, siþe	siþe, sin sen	since
ðwyr, ðwirles, ðweorh, ðwer, on þweorh (adv.)	—	—	—	athwart, thwart
—	—	overþwert	over þwart	athwart, thwart
—	þwertover	—	—	athwart
—	onward	—	—	instead of
—	inward	—	—	within

CONJUNCTIONS.

I. Pronominal.

FIRST PER.	SECOND PER.	THIRD PER.	FOURTH PER.	
and, ond	and	and	and	and,
nú.	rf.	now, n ^{aw}	now	now
ne.. ne	ne...ne	ne...ne	ne...ne	neither.. nor
éac, éc	ek, eke, ok	ek, eke	eke, eche	also, eke
ac, ach, ah	ah, auh, ec, ach, ok	ac	ac	but
swá	swa, so, sua, swo	sa, swa, sa, so	so	so
cal-swá	alswá, alswa, also, else, ase	also, alswa, alse, ase	as, also	also, as
—	sum	som, sum	som, sum	as
swá hwær-swá	whær-swa	wher-as	wheras	whereas
swylce	swulc, else, ase	—	—	as if
gif	gif, gaf, y'ef	gif, yif	gif, if	if
ðý	þi	þi	—	therefore
áðý (ðe)	—	—	—	so much the ...as

¹ *Evenesforþ* became *evene ðe wite* in later writers ; used as an adv.

FIRST PER.	SECOND PER.	THIRD PER.	FOURTH PER.	
ðylás, ðylás ðe ðelgáste ðe	lest, læste	leste, laste	lest	lest
ðás ðesðe	—	—	—	so far, thus
—	þes	—	—	wherþby
ðon, ðonne	þenne, þanne þenne, þonne	þanne, þan þenne, þonne	þanne, þan	therefore then
ðonne	þeno, þanne, þonne, þan	þenne, þanne, þan, þen þan	—	than, since
—	—	—	als, bot	than
ðá ðá þá	þa, þo þa, þo	þo, þa þo	þa, þa þo, þa þat	then when that
ðeah	þah, þah, þoh, þeh, þaih, þauh, þeih, þeyh	þez, þei, þof —	þouz, þogh, þeigh, þei	nevertheless, though
—	—	—	alle þoughe	although
swáðeah	þoh-swa-þoh	—	—	nevertheless (though)
ðanon	—	—	—	thence
ðær, ðær ðær	þer, þer þær þer-fore, þær-fore	þer þerfore	þer, þær þerfore	there, where therefore
ðenden for ðý	þende for ði	— for thy	— for thy	whilst therefore (for thy is used by Spenser)
ðæt	þat, þet	þet, þat, at	þat, at	that, in order that, on purpose that
ær (ðæt) ær ðam ðæt ær ðam ðe	ær, er, ar, ær þan, ei þan	ar, or, er er þan	ar, er, or erthen erst then, or that	ere, or (ever) ere that
—	ær þat	after that	after that	after
—	—	—	—	during, whilst
—	biðoren þat	biðore þat	before þat	before, afore
—	þong þat	—	—	while that
bútan (ðæt), bútan	bute, buten	bute, bote, bute þat	but, bot	but, but that
—	—	—	no but, no bot	only
—	but gif	but-gif	but gif	but...if (unless)

FIRST PER.	SECOND PER.	THIRD PER.	FOURTH PER.
—	—	—	wipouten unless that, except, without
—	purh þat purh þat þat	—	bur3 þat through that pur3 þat þat, ther thur3 þat (because that)
—	—	—	— besides that, notwithstand- ing that
—	—	—	by þe cause because that þat, because þat
—	—	—	for because for because þat (vulgar)
—	—	—	no but, no but except that, 3if, but except, ex- cepting that
—	—	save	save that, saf save, save only that only that
—	—	on lesse	— saving, unless — whether...or
sam...sam, same...same	—	—	— and
ge	—	—	— both...and
ge...ge	ge...ge	—	— both...and
ge...and	ga þa...ga þa	—	yo þoþ, ya both...and boþe...and
ge	3e	3e	3e (3he) even, yea, nay, nay even, ay
git, get	3et, 3ette hwet...hwet	3et wat...wat, what...what	3et yet what...what what...and what, what ...and
hwonne	wenne, whan, whanne, wane (bonne honne)	wan, wane, hucn	whan, when, when, when that when so, when au, whensoever
hwā, huer, swā huer	hwar	wācr, hucr, whar	wher, whar where
—	ware so, hwære-swa, war-swa, wer-swa, whær-swa-se, wær-sæm	—	whereso

II. Numeral.

FIRST PER.	SECOND PER.	THIRD PER.	FOURTH PER.
án...sum, sum...sum	sum...sum	som...som, som...and som	som...som, oon... anoþer, oon...and oon, oþer...oþer, on...oþer, one (some)... some, one... another other... some, one...other
búgen ¹ ...and	baðe...and, ba...and	boþe...and	bothe...and both...and
árest... síðan...æt næxtan	erst...siþþen, et nexten (rare)	first...siþþen (siþþe)	first...and siþþen first...after- wards ...at last, first, second- ly, lastly, finally, &c.
—	—	—	first...after, ,,...eft, ,,...after- ward, ,,...after þat, ,,...further- more, ,,...also ,,...thanne, ,,...than, ,,...finally

III. Adjective (Adverbial).

on efne	an æfne	evene	—	even, even, to
eornostlice	—	—	therfor	therefore
for ðon	—	—	therefore	therefore
sóðlice	—	—	forsoþe lo!	truly
—	—	—	sooþly, soþly	—
witodlice	—	—	indeed,	truly
elles	and ælles	—	forsoþe and elles, elc, or elc	else, or else
gelice, gefice-swá on-lice	iliche, (alike)	(an-liche)	—	like as, like- wise, alike...and
—	—	—	furthermore	furthermore
—	—	—	furtherover	further
—	—	—	moreover	moreover
—	—	as	—	where, that
—	—	as ver forþas as fer forþ	—	as far as

¹ It was inflected.

IV. Substantive.

FIRST PER.	SECOND PER.	THIRD PER.	FOURTH PER.
hwilum..	while (wile)...	—	whilom...and awhile...
hwilum	while (wile).	—	whilom
—	—	—	awhile,
—	—	—	some- ¹
—	—	—	times...
—	—	—	sometimes,
—	—	—	at times...
—	—	—	at times
—	—	—	now...now
—	—	—	now...now
8i hwile...	þeo while þe	—	the while that
ða hwile	þa while þat	the while þat	the while, that
—	þe while þe,	the while,	while, whilst,
—	whil þat,	while, whiles	the while
—	hwils	þat, to while	(the
—	—	þat, to whils	whiles),
—	—	—	while that,
—	—	—	whilst that,
—	—	—	during the
—	—	—	while that
—	—	—	in case, in case
on ðæt geræd	—	for þe æs þat in case if	that
—	—	—	on condition
—	—	—	that

V. Prepositional.

See *ær, æfter, biforan, būta, bi, for, from, in, mid, nemne, of, on gēan, sū, til, to, wið, wiðutan, suruh, &c.* These forms are generally followed by *ðæt, ðe (that)*.

VI. Verbal.

—	—	to iw'ten	—	to wit
---	---	-----------	---	--------

VII. Compounds.

nāls ðæt an	—	nozt one...ac	not only...not only...
...ac éac	—	—	not only ...but, but,
—	—	—	but ðe, not merely
—	—	—	not oniy... ..but
—	—	—	but and
nā ðylæs,	noþeles,	no þeles,	neverþeles, nathless, ¹

¹ *Ne for thi, nat for thi* occur in the Third and Fourth periods for *nevertheless*.

FIRST PER.	SECOND PER.	THIRD PER.	FOURTH PER.	
ná ðe lās	no þe later, neuer þe later	never þe lās, never þe later, ner þe later	nā þeles, nā þeles, never þe later	neverthe- less
ac ná ðe má	—	nā þemo	—	nāthemore (neverthe- less),
ðæt is	þat is, þet is	þat is	þat is	that is
—	—	that is at say	that is to seye, that is to seiē	that is to say
nāre (ne were) ðæt	—	warne, warn	warne, warn	were it not that
—	—	—	alle be it that, be so it be, þy so, were it so that	were it so, be it so, albe, albeit
—	—	—	though so be that, sath that, so is that	how be

INTERJECTIONS.

éa	a	a	a	ah!
—	—	—	—	A! A! A! (Wickliffe, Jer. xiv. 18)
éa-lá ¹	—	aha alas, allas	aha alas, allas fy allas	aha O, alas, alas the day alack, lackaday bah (O.F. <i>bah</i>) eh (O.F. <i>eh</i>), ay fie (O.F. <i>fi</i>)
—	—	—	—	—
—	—	—	ey	—
—	—	fyadables (= fie a devils)	vath, or fie to hee, fy ₃ (vath) thou, fy wah (vath)	—
—	—	—	—	foh, fah, faugh heigh, hey, heyday
hig	—	—	—	—

¹ Éa-lá seems to be mixed up with F. *hē-las* (Lat. *lassus*, weary), hence *alas! alack!*

FIRST PER.	SECOND PER.	THIRD PER.	FOURTH PER.
hú	—	—	—
hú lá	—	—	—
hwý	—	—	why
lá	la, lo, lour	lo	lo, loo
—	o	o	ow, ou
—	—	—	a
—	—	—	te he ¹
—	—	—	wew
—	—	—	—
hwæt	—	wha ⁺	what
wá	wa, wo	wo	woo, wo
wá-lá	wola, wallan, wla, weolla, wele	—	—
—	—	—	alas
wá lá wá	ah wala wa, walawa, wolawo, wæila, wæi, weilawei	weslaway, weilaway	wa la wa
—	awæi, awei, weih	awei, away, wei	—
—	—	—	harow
—	—	—	whist
—	heil (be þou)	—	—
—	—	—	baw, bawe
—	—	—	heit ⁺ now
—	—	—	jossa
—	—	—	avoy. (O. Fr. voi)
			how
			how now
			why
			lo! la! & la!
			O, oh
			O, O me!
			aha!
			aha!
			ugh!
			what!
			woe!
			alas!
			alas!
			ah, well-a- day, well away
			alas! O woe! ay me! aye!
			harrow!
			whisht!
			hust!
			heil! al hail!
			bow-wow
			gee
			whoa
			fie

In the Second period we find *witlicrist*, *wot Crist*=Christ knows, by Christ!

In the Third period we find (1) *deus, dōnce*=the deuce; (2) *dapeit, dahet* (O. Fr. *deshait, dehait, zehet*)=ill beude. In subsequent writers it became *dapet*, which has given rise to *dase you! dice you! dash you!* (3) *goddor, goddoth*=God wot, God knows. It occurs also in the subsequent period.

Denotes mocking laughter.

Peter = St. Peter, is a common interjection in the Third and Fourth periods, like *Marry* !¹ (= the Virgin *Mary*) in later times.

Bi Crist, for God, Lorde, &c. occur in the Third and Fourth periods.

¹ *Scinte Marie* occurs as interjection in the Second period.

APPENDIX III.

WORDS OF NORMAN-FRENCH ORIGIN IN THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE BEFORE 1300.

I. IN the "*Saxon Chronicle*," before 1200 :—

Cuntesse, curt, dub, dubban, dubben, emperice, justise, miracles, pais, prisun, privileges, processun, rente, stand, rd, tresor, tur.

II. "*Lambeth Homilies*" ("O.E. Hom.," First Series), ed. Morris, for E.E.T. Society, before 1200 :—

Asottic, blaifmet, cachepol, castel, cherité, clerk, crunede, elmesfill, elmesse, crites (=heretics), ermine, ewangeliste, flum, fructe, ioffred, lagulere, large, lechurs, liureisun, manere, meister, merci, messe, munek, munte, palefrai, parais, passun, poverté, processun, prophete, prude, prur, riche, rubbere, sabeline, sacremens, salm, saltere, sauter, seinte, sermonen, servise, sottes, spp's, spus-had, ureisuns.

III. "*Trinity College Homilies*" ("O.E. Hom.," Second Series), ed. Morris, for E.E.T. Society, before 1200 :—

Aisie, albe, almes, archebissopes, barun, bispused, burnet, calch, calice, caliz, candel, chastren, chemise, clerc, confessors, corporeals, crisme-cloth, custume, fustane, gestuinge, languste (locust), lechure, maisterlinge, marbreston, martirs, reister, mentel, messe, mesure, minster, miseise, murt olive, onur, oregel, orgele, palm, patriarche, perance, penitence, poule, prisune, prophete, religion, richeise, roberie, saffran, salnt, sepulcre, sergantes, sol, sole, spuse, strect, tur, turnde, turtle, undeplantede, underplanter, virgines.

IV. Words from Laȝamon's "*Brut*," ed. Madden (? 1205) :—

Achap, admirail, apostolic, archen, armiter, ascaped, astronomie, avallen, balles, barun, bichusen, bolle, bunnan, cacchen, canele, cantelcopt, cathel (chattels), cheisil, clusden (closed), coriun (musical

pipe), crune, crunedeh, cruche, dotie, dylben, duc, dusze-pers, eastresse, falsie, flum, ginn, hardiliche, hiue (huc and cry), hurte, iburned, ieled (anointed), ire, kablen, lac, latimer, lavede, legiun, licoriz, liun, machunes, mahun, male, mantel, martir, messagere, mile, montaine, munstre, munt, mast, nunne, olifantes, pal, paradis, paytisce (= of Poitou), pilgrim, pore, porz (ports), postes, pouere, processiu, putte, riche, riches (= richesse), salmes, salteriu, scarninge, scare, scarn, sceremigge (scrimmage), scole, scornes, scurmen, sealled, senaht, senaturs, scint, servinge, servise, sire, sot, sumunde, talie (?), temple, timpe, tumbel, tunne, tur, turne, warde, weorre (war), werre (to war, ravage), ymages.

In the later text we find the additional words—abley, anued, aspid (espied), atyr, canoun, changede, chapel, chevetaine, cloke, conseil, contre (country), cope, cri, delaie, eyr, failede, fol, folie, gile, gisarme, grace, granti, guyse, harsun (arçun), herewite, honure, hostage, istored, manere, marbre-stone, nonnerie, note, paide, pais, paisi, parc, passi, pensiles, porses, prisune, rollede, route, sarvi, scapie, seinc (ensign), siwi (follow), soffri, tavel, tresur, truage, tumbc, urinal, usi, waiteth.

V. (1) "*Seinte Marharrete*," ed. Cockayne, for E.E.T. Society, about 1200:—

Bascin, castel, changede, chapelc, chevese, crauant, crune, crunedc, grace, grandame, ibreuēt, lampe, liun, mantles, martir, martirdom, merci, passiur, pr'nce, prisun, salve, samblant, scinte, turnen, warant.

(2) "*On Ureisun*," &c. in Lambeth MS. and Cotton MS. Nero A. xiv. ("O.E. Hom." First Series), about 1220:—

Abandun, cunfort, delit, fals, medicine, privité, salvi, unsauuct.

(3) "*On God Ureisun*," Cotton MS. Nero, A. xiv. ("O.E. Hom." First Series):—

Cherité, ciclatune, ikruned, krune, unuch, paradise, servise.

(4) "*On Lofsong of ure Lefdi*" (Ib.):—

Boffettunge, cununge, grace, passiun, pris, prude, sacreð, sacrament.

(5) "*On Lofsong of ure Lofwode*" (Ib.):—

Ewangeliste, i-sacred, merci, merciable, obedience, of-schunge, sawte, seruunge, turnen, warant, un-of-saved.

(6) "*Soules Warde*" (O.E. Hom.):—

Aturnet, castel, cuneð, cunctable, cunfessur, i-cheret, i-robber, keiseres, mealles, mesure, meistreð, meoster, meosure, mesure, preouia, semblant, tresor, trones.

(7) "*Vohunge of ure Lourd*" (Ib.):—

Beast, buffet, calenges, carpe, chaumbre, crune, debonairté, debonairschipe, derennedes, dol, druð, druri, sise, gentile (gentiller, gentileste), grace, hardi, large, largesse, lettres, mesaise, myrt, noble, noblesce, paie, passium, pilier, porerte, poure, praic, prei, prince, prisun, ribauz, robbedes, schurges, spuse, strete, treitur, tresun.

(8) "*Hali Meidenhad*," ed. Cockayne:—

Acovered, acoveringe, adamantine stan, angoise, asailzet, atur, basine, beast, cangt, haste, haisteð, chaunger, confort, coveringe, crunen, cuncweari, cuntasse, degrez, delit, digneté, eise, esta, flu, gentil, gerlaunde, grace, greie, haunteð, heritage, huler, i-robbed, laumpe, leccherie, meistre, nurice, paraise, preoued, prisun, prokie, prophete, puisun, richesce, sauure, semblaund, seiven, servize, suleð, treitre, tresor, trubuil, turnunge, uerte, uncoverlich, vanité, weimeres.

(9) "*Ancre Aisole*," ed. Morton, for Camden Society:—

Abit, absoluciu, abstinence, accidie, achate, acwiten, adote, advent, adversité, aqited, affectiun, ppointed, akoveren, aloes, amased, ameistre, ampiules, archeisun, anke (anchor), andetted, angoise, anguisuse, anniversaries, antefne, anui, arche, armes, aromaz, articles, asailen, asaumple, asperet, aspieden, assauz, assumciun, astar, atiffen, attente, aturn, auance, aventure, auez, augrim, autorité, awaitie, baui, bame, batiste, barain, baret, bauadune, beaubelet, belami, bi-barred, bi-clusinge, bi-mased, bi-saumpleð, bi-trusleð, blamen, blasphemie, broche, buffeten, burgeises, cancre, canoniel, capitalen, castel, cause, celere, celles, champion, charoix, chaste, chaseté, chastement, chaumberling, chaumfore, chaunge, chaungen, chaungunge, cheapitres, chere, cherité, chetel, circumstances, cité, clauses, clergesse, clerk, cloudegelofre, cluse, cogitaciun, collecte, contemplaciun, continuance, cope, corbin, cortasail, creant, crede, creoisen, creioiz, crucifix, crune, crununge, cul, cumfort, cumplie, continuelement, cwaer, cwalreaus, cwitaunge, cwite, cwiver, cwointe, dme, dangerus, debonere, debonerté, delautes, deinté, dolices, deliton, departunge, depeinten, descriued, deskumfit, despiled, destrued, dette, detturs, deuociun, devot, dewleset, dialge, diete, dignité, disciplines, distinctiuns, disturben, drerie, duble, eaise, effiacces, enbrued, ententes, entermeten, eremite, cresie, eritage, failede, familiarité, fautesme, feble, feblesce, feblie, felle, feste, fetre, figer, figes, fisiciens, flatterunge, flures, fol, folherdi, fluf, garçen, gelus, gelusie, genterise, gentile, gibet, gigge, gile, gilen, gingiu(e)re, giwerie, glorie, gluun, glutunie, grace, greail, greuen, grusche, gun-

faneur, harlot, haunce, hylunge, i-ancre, i-flured, ignorance, i-granted, i-kupled, i-laced, impaciencce, incest, inobedience, i-paied, ipocrisie, ipocrite, i-sturbed, iuglur, joie, juggement, juggen, jurneie, kalenge, keccheð, kerneaus, kernel, kumfort, kunsceunce, kunsiler, kurt, kurteisie, kuertur, largesche, larges, largesce, lecherie, lechur, leprus, lestuns, letanie, lettre, letuarie, leun, licur, manere, manicle, maseliche, maten, medicipe, meditaciuns, meister, meistrie, menestraus, mercer, merci, merit, meseise, messenger, messeð, mesteres, mesterie, mesure, miracle, mirre, misericorde, mis-ipaied, muchares, munt, munuch, nativité, neppe, noble, noblesce, noëces, noise, nurice, obedience, obedient, observaunce, ordrc, orhel, pacience, pagine, païen, palm, parais, parlures, paroschian, parten, passen, passium, peintunge, peinture, peis, pellian, penitence, perfectiun, person, pilche, pilgrimes, pilete, piment, pitaunce, pleinte, plenté, pope, point, potage, poure, prechen, prechur, prechures, preemence, preisen, preisinge, prelat, preofunge, preoue, precouen, present, presente, presse, pre-sumciun, prime, pris, prisun, prisun, priuement, priuilege, priuité, priue, professiun, prokie, prophète, propre, propreliche, prosperité, puffes, purgatorie, pusses, rancor, ransun, reclus, recoilen, recorde, regibbeð, reison, relef, religiun, religiuse, reliques, remedies, remissium, renten, rentes, riche, richesses, rikelot, riote, riwle, riwlen, riwlunge, robbares, robben, rose, rute, sabraz, sacrament, sacreð, sacrificse, salme, saluen, saluz, salve, sarmun, sauter, sauuaciun, sauuen, saur, scandle, sgorn, scorpiun, semblaunt, seint, seinte, sentence, sepulchre, seruien, seruisse, servant, silence, simonie, simple, sire, skirm, skurgen, sol, sot, sotschipe, speciale, spense, spice, spices, spitel, sponge, spus, stamin, stat, sturbinge, sucurs, suilede, sulement, sutare, temptaciuns, tempti, tendrust, rme, testament, treisun, treitte, tresor, tribulaciuns, tricherie, trinité, trone, trublen, truffes, trusseaus, trussen, truwandisc, tår, tures, turnement, turnen, unie, ungraciuse, unicorn, unsaure, unseauliche, unstable, untrussed, ureisuns, ures, urnemenz, vaumpez, voiles, vers, versalie, verset, verslunge, vestimenz, vilcinie, vilté, waite, wardeins, weorrede, weorreur, ynnce, zedewal.

VI. (1) "*Bestiary*," in "*An O.E. Miscellany*," ed. Morris, for E.E.T. Society, about 1240:—

Capun, cete, cethegratie, crede, dragon, elpe, funt-fal, grace, leun, mandragores, market, panter, poure, robbing, simple, spase, turtre, venim.

(2) "*Gensis and Exodus*," ed. Morris, for E.E.T. Society, about 1240:—

Arsmetrike, astrozomige, aucter, auter, bigamie, canticle, charité, circumcis, cité, corune, crone, crune, desce, gaunte, gruchede, holocaust, hostel, iusted, lecherie, lepre, munt, master, offiz, pais, plenté, pore, presente, pris, promissiou, prophet, roche, sacrede, serue, service, spices, spist, suriun, swinacie, ydales, ydolatrie.

(3) "*Old Kentish Sermons*," in "*An O.E. Miscellany*," about 1240:—

Acumbri, amoncestement, amunteð, anud, anuri, aparailen, aperen, aresunede, asoiled, auenture, cha, e, cite, commandement, comencement, compaignie, conseil, contrarie, curs, custom, cuuenable, defenden, deliuri, desevired, diuers, ensample, folies, grante, glorius, glutunie, grucheche, i-sauued, i-warised, lecherie, lechur, lepre, leprus, maladic, marcatte, merci, miracle, montagne, nature, naturelliche, of-serven, onuri, orgeilus, pair, pelrimage, peril, perissi, poere, religiun, roberie, sacrefyse, sarmun, seinte, sergaunz, servi, seruisc, signefiance, signefien, somoni, spusbreche, suffri, travail, umole, urisun, verray, vertu, visiti, ydres.

(4) "*Owl and Nightingale*," ed. Stratmann, 1244:—

Acorde, afoled, barez, canuncs, castel, clerkes, cundut, dahet, spucon, gelus, ginne, grante, grucching, i-peint, maister, mantein, mesci, mester, munekes, pais, plaid, plaidi, plaiding, plaite, pope, poure, purs, rente, rithe, schirme, sot, sothede, spus-bruche, spusing, sputing, weorre.

(5) "*Jesus Poems*," in "*An O.E. Miscellany*," about 1244 (MS. written after 1250):—

Anatiste, am, askape, barun, beril, bitrayen, buffet, calcydon, calche, castel, cendal, cheysil, clergie, crisopace, croyz, crune, crysmecild, culur, curteys, date, duzepe, dryworics, feste, flum, flur, fyn, gayhol, grace, hardy, iaspe, kistum, laced, lecherye, lectoric, mantel, matines, maystres, mercy, meyn, munt, nappes, ofseruie, palefray, palle, persones, playdurs, povernesse, poure, prechen, prech, preyng, pryn, prysune, quiten, renqyan, reyne, robe, russet, saphir, sardone, scarlat, sepulchre, sermun, sermony, seruy, skarlet, smaragde, spis, spusinge, symonye, trayen, temple, tnapace, turn, turnen, warantye, weorrel.

VII. "*Havelok the Dane*," ed. Skeat, for E.E.T. Society, about 1280:—

Allas, arker, arke, asayleden, aunlaz, auter, ayse, baret, barnage, baroun, barre, beneysur, beste, blame, burgeys, cal, castel, catel, cauenard, cerges, chanounes, charbucke, chartre, chaste, champioun, chinche, closede, constable, consyl, corporaus, corune, corruping, couere, cri, croiz, curi, curtoys, curteysye, datheit, derherite, doute, dubbe, critage, cri, feble, feblelike, felonnye, fey, feyth, flaunes, flote, flour, frusshe, fyn, gent, gisarn, gleues, glotus, grauntede, grith-sergeans, grong, gruched, hard, hermites, ioie, ioupe, iustise, kopes, large, lumpyrci, leou, leteres, lue-drurfe, malisun, maugre, mayster, mele, menie, merci, messe-bok, messe-gere, noblelike, nunnes, palfrey, panier, pappes, parlement, partek, pasteas, pateyn,

payed, per, plainte, piente, poke, poucre, poure, pourcelike, prey, preye, preys, priouie, pymen, ribble, riche, roberes, romanz, rose, roser, runci, sauc, sauteres, sayse, segges, seinte, sergaunz, serges, simenels, sire, spusc, spusen, spusing, storic, sturgiun, supe, syre, tabour, taleuaces, tendre, trayson, traytour, trechery, tresoun, trone, trasse, tumberel, turbut, turnen, uoyz, utrage, veneysun, waiten, warant, wastels.

VIII. (1) "*King Horn*," ed. Lumby, for E.E.T. Society, before 1300:—

Admiral, ankere, arive, assaille, aventure, banere, baronage, bataille, bigiled, bitraie, blame, castel, chacre, chapelles, change, cur, compaynye, cosin, couerture, crois, crune, curt, damesele, deole, defie, devise, disse, dubbing, enemis, enuye, fur, folye, galeic, galun, gours, gestes, ginne, glotun, grace, graunt, grauel, heritage, homage, i-armed, lace, maister, manere, messaventure, mestere, palais, palmere, passage, payn, paynyme, pilgryn, place, posse, preic, priane, prone, prowess, pug, rengle, rente, roche, rose, scaped, sclavyne, scrippe, serie, serue, seruisse, spuse, spusen, squier, ture, turnen.

(2) "*Assumpcion*," in the volume containing "*King Horn*":—

Amendy, assumpcion, belamy, bi-traie, chaun, chic, frut, gilc, lescoun, meigné, messenger, mester, palm, parchement, poure, scrui, seruisse, space, temple.

(3) "*Florice and Blauncheur*," in "*King Horn*":—

Accupement, admiral, angussus, aquite, arëisun, art, bacn, harbecan, barnage, baron, belamy, burgeis, capun, certes, charbucle, chaumberlein, chaumbre, change, chaumentent, cite, cler, compaygne, con-iureson, coveitus, cric, cristal, culver, cunsfil, curtais, date, demure, departe, deshonour, druerie, dubbede, gite, engin, entermeten, enyus, escaker, felouic, felu, fin (end), flur, ginne, ginnur, grace, granti, gref, hardy, honoure, ioie, iugheints, kernel, lampe, lanterne, largeliche, maine, marbelston, marchaundice, marchaunt, mariner, mascu (mason), meniuiet, norci, onur, oresun, pal, palais, panc, parage, parais, par amur, part, parte, parting, passion, peire, piler, pirate, pite, place, plenerie, porter, preic, prisun, quite, resun, riche, saphir, sc, antillun, semblaunt, sergauns, sire, sopere, spic, spusen, squire, stage, suffre, tendre, torche, towaille, tuf, tures.

IX. "*Kynge Alexaunder*," ed. Weber, before 1300:—

Abasched, abatost, accord[e], acord, acorde, acordement, acoste, acount, acoysyng, adaunt, adument, aduance, acordmed, aferis, affye, aforced, agref, air, (heir), aketoun, alblatre, alblatre, aliene, almatour, alouris, amayed, amblant, amende, amendement, amending, ameye, amiraylis, amiture, amonestement, amour (lover), a. nye (friend),

ancre, angwyth, anura^l, anoye, àntur, ^lapaied, apere, aperte, aperte-
 liche, appertenaunce, aprise, ^lcquyte, arayed, archeris, areson,
 aresoned, arived, arme, armed, armes, armoure, arnement, ars, arsur,
 ars-table, art, asaid, asawt, away, aschape, assemblaye, asoyne, asper-
 aunt, aspieth, aspye, aspyed, ^lasaille, assailed, assailynge, assent,
 assentyn, assise, assoyne, ^lasteynte (?), astore, astrangled, astrumyeu,
 astronomye, asygh (= essay), atire, auntred, auctorité, autour, avaunce,
 avauncement, avenaunt, aventure, avetrol, aveysé, aviroun, avowe,
 bachelrye, bac[h]elur, bailifs, baner, baneret, barbjicans, barell, barge,
 baronage, baroun, baroynye, basnet, basyn, bataille, batallye, batayling,
 baudekyn, baudry, bawmed, bay, beef, berfreys, beans, best, blamed,
 boceleris, bocher, bonere, borel, botemey, botileir, boyle, braunche,
 bray, broches, bugle, burgeys, busa^l, by-cache, by-lace, cage,
 canailles, canel, carayne, caries (carats), carole, carolyng, cas, castel,
 cayvars, ceptres, cer^{es}, certeyn, chain, chaisel, chalenge, champion,
 charbokel, chargin, charmed, charmyng, charrey, chas, chast, ^lcheit[e],
 chaumbre, chaumpe, chaynce, ^lchaunge, chaunce, chaunselerie, cheré,
 chesoun, chesse, chevalry, cheventyn, cheyn, cheyne, chivalrie, cité, cler,
 clergie, clér, clerk, conioun, cokedrill, colour, ^lceloure, comaundement,
 comburment, comforte, compaignye, comune, comyn, ^lfaceyve, con-
 jureson, conjurynr, conqueren, consaillynge, consent, constable, kontek,
 continuaunce, contray, corage, coragous, corant, cornr, coroune, corour,
 cors, corsour, ^lcortesy, cortined, cozyns, counsail, counseiler, countryng,
 coup, cours, ^lou^l, venant, covertour, to coverye, coward, coyntise,
^lcratufe, crisolites, cristal, croper, crounc, crowned, croupe, cry,
 crye, cure, ^lcrteis, dalye, damage, dame, damosel, dauncen, daunte,
 defaute, defence, defende, defoille, ^ldefyeaunce, defygh, delfyns,
 delices, deliciouse, deli^l, delit, delited, delivered, demayn, demere,
 demorrance, ^ldeol, departed, depose, deray, dereyne, ^ldeaharged,
^ldesert, de-honour, desirous, desten^lng, destrere, destruye, desyre,
^ldett, devyse, ^ldeynt, Dieu me^lry, ^ldiscoverte, discipline, discrye,
 discryue, ^ldisgyed, dismayng, dispence, dispised, dispit, dispoyled,
 disray, disseyte, distinctioun, ^ldistresse, divers, doloure, dosayn,
 dosseyn, doutaunce, doute, dragman (= interpreter), dragon, drage^let,
 to dres[sc], drowery, dromedaris, dromoun, dumbled, dubhyng, duk,
 dure, dysours, emeraundis, emperour, empire, embrace, encence,
 encheson, encombrement, encresed, ^lenmye, engyn, engyneful, ^leherit,
 enuesure, entail, entent, entermetvd, entaile, entreden, entree, envyen-
 men, ermine, eschape, ^lestellacioun, estre, evorye, fable, face, faile,
 fairy, fame, faucon, ^lfayasour, favour, feste, feite, ^lfynt, feyntise,
 ficcion, firmament, flank, flour, flourith, flum, foisoun, folie, fool,
 forest, forkis, fortresses, fourmed, frons^l, front, fruscht, fruyt, furchur,
 furred, fygeres, fyne, gage, ^lgadopith, gangle (jangle), gardyhes,
 gargaze, garnement, ^lgousounes, gaumbisoun, gay, geaunt, gent, gentil,
 gentiliche, gentil-men, ^lgote, ^lgestnyng, gileful, gilofre, glorious,
 glouton, gonfanoun, ^lgornes, ^lgorgen, ^lgorgar, ^lgvernor, graunt, grauntid,
 greuance, greven, gybet, ^lgyle, ^lgylyng, ^lgyfker, gynze, gyoures, gysarme,
 gyse, hardnesse, hardy, to hardye, harlet, harnesche, harneys, hast,
 haumudeys, haunteth, hawkerk, herocr, herbes, heygh-maister,

homage, honest, honeste, honour, honouren, hostel, hurdices, iniquité, ire, irrous, issue, jacynkt, jangelours, jay, jeste, jogolere, jolif, joliffe, jolifliche, joly, joye, joyned, juggle, juggement, juster, justes, justices, justyng, juwel, laboryng, labour, lake, langage, largenesse, laroun, latiner, launce, launce, launcceyng, lecherie, lechour, leisere, leoparden, lessoun, lettres, lettrure, lewte, licoris, lioun, liversoon, losynger, lumbar, lynage, lyvereyng, mace, madame, maigné, maister, maisterlyng, maistrie, male-aperte, malese, malicious, maltalent, manace, manas, maner, mangemils, mantel, marchal, marchaut, margarites, married, mariners, market, marreys, mason, matere, matynges, maigre, mayntenid, medecyne, medlay, melodye, memorie, menage, mendyng, menevere, mercye, merveille, merveilleuse, merveilnynges, mesanter, meschaunce, meschef, message, messenger, messangers, mester, mesureable, metal, meynentaunt, molest, monoceros, mont, monteth, mortar, motoun, mounde, mountaunce, mountaync, muray, muyle, myne, mynoris, mynstral, nacioun, nature, neyce, noble, noblece, nobleys (= noblesse), noise, nombre, norice, norische, nortoure, notemugge, nygremauncye, odour, olifaunt, on-cas, ordeyne, orfreys, orgulous, ost, ostage, outrage, page, pais, paleis, palfray, palmer, panter, parage, paramours, pardé, parforce, parlement, pars, part, party, pas, passed, pasture, pautener, payloun, paye, pays, pecces, peacock, pelles, penaunce, pencil, peolure, people, peopur, peoren (= peers), perage (= parage), perce, perceyved, perch, perdis, pere, perile, perlement, pers, percon, pertyng (= parting), peryl, peyn, pilgrimage, piropes, pite, place, planete, plate, playn, planté, pleyne, pleynt, pociouns, poisons, pomon, popet, poraile, pore, postere, poudré, povert, power, praised, praisyng, pray (= prey), pray, preche, precieuse, preoie, preost (= pressed), preove, pres, present, presented, prest, pris, prison, priveté, proferid, propre, prowess, prynce, pryncé, pryveliche, purchacyng, purchas, pure, purs, purtreied, purveyed, puyt, pyment, pypyn (= pipe), pyrates, pyne (jewels), quarel, quaelis, queyntaunce, queyntise, qweynté, quybibe, quystron, quyt, rage, rasour, raundoun, raunsoun, rebel, refuse, regioun, reherce, reirarde, reysin, rekowered, remenaunt, remuwing, renoun, rente, repentand, repentyng, rererayn, resset, return, reverence, reveryng, reyne, to reygne, ribaud, ribaudye, riche, richely, riches, rinoceros, robbedye, robbery, robbour, robe, rocher, roite (= rute), romaunce, round, route, rybaud, ryage, sacrefying, sacrefyse, saffer, sailyng (= asailyng), salred, salueth, salved, samyt, saumain, saun dotaunce, saun fible, saun faile, savage, save, scape, scarceliche, scarseté, sclandre, scouion, scoumyt, scourge, sedewate, segedyn, seignoric, seignour, semblabel, semblaunt, semis (= senates), scndel, sengle, sergant, servage, servise, seysouns, siclatoun, signefieth, signifaunce, signifing, sire, swien, skarlet, skyrme, skyrmyng, slyces, smaragdes, socour, socoure, sodeynliche, soffraunce, soffred, soicurnyng, sojorneth, sojour, soket, solace, solaced, somer, sombound, songs, opere, sorcerie, soudan, soun, sourmouncie, speciale, spices, spies, spirit, spoil, spoile, spouse, spoused, spy, stable, stage, stamped, standard, storie, straunge, straye,

sumpteris, suspecion, sustenaunce, swite (=s te), swyer, sygaldrye, syment, sytolying, tabatyl, table, talen, tapnace, tastyng, tayl, tempestes, temple, tempreth, tence, tencour, tent, terrene, teste (head), to-lonst, torellis, touche, tour, tourment, race, traitour, trappe, trappen, travaille, traye, traytory, treble, treson, tresorere, tresour, trespas, tressen, tronchon, trouage, trouble, rumpes, trumpons, trumpyng, trussed, tryacle, turnay, turneth, turneiying, tyffen, tyger, tymbres, tyranné, unces, undur-chamblurleyn, un-honest, un-plye, usage, unycornes, valour, vawte, velasour, vengeance, venyme, venysoun, verger, verreyment, vestement, vertuous, veue, victorie, vigor, virgyn, visage, vitales, voidud, voys, vygour, vylanye, vysite, warante, warentmentis, warysoun, weilyng, weorre, weorriour, y-chaste, y-foiled, yle, ymage, ymages, ymagour, ynde, y-payvylounded, ypotaine.

X. A. "*Lives of Saints*," &c., in "*Early English Poems*," ed. Furnivall, for Philological Society, about 1295:—

(1) St. Dunstan.—Abbei, abbey, amende, anteyn, aperteliche, assoillede, blamie, celle, consailler, contrai, créte, crowning, deynté, doute, enuye, folliche, freres, grace, graur ede, ioye, joyfulle, kirileyson, lecherie, mistres, manere, masse, miracle, monek, norischi, ordeynour, ordre, oreisouns, persones, persoun, place, poer, pose, poure, previe, priveité, rente, ser ede, servie, sire, sodeynliche, sojournede, solas, specials, treofinge, trespas, uncle.

(2) An Oxford Student.—Clere, cors, iserved, madame, onourede, onoury, penance, privé, priveilliche, repentant, scole, servise.

(3) The Jews and the Cross.—Forme, priveité, sacring, trecherie, vylté.

(4) St. Swithin.—Amendede, assignede, bobauce, chiefe, confessor, consail, devocioun, doutes, heir, honer, y-greved, iolyf, ioyous, i-revested, masoun, noble, norissie, oreisouns, portoure, poynt, processoun, ribaudie, seint, signe, squiers, summede, turnde.

(5) St. Kenelme.—Abhai, accantes, ambesat, awaite, bi-gyled, chapel, conteckede, cumaignye, deol, departe, diverse, enuye, felonye, feste, folie, for-travailed, frut, (a)tefyne, heritage, honury, iugement, larder, lettres, martirs, messenger, nobesse, nobliche, norice, outrage, pees, poisoun, principales, priveité, surveide, reke, sauf, sautere, sauvoure, cisi, suy, tendre, traitour, travailist, trecherie, valleye, vers, wardeyn, y-martred.

(6) St. James.—Agyled, beau, bi-gyl, bi-traxe, cas, dulfulliche, doutede, i-sued, justise, membre, merci, pelegryn, preisi, queyntise, resoun.

(7) St. Christopher.—Angusse, arlostes, beau sire, clez, consortie, cowardz, cristnede, croice, broiz, delyvri, fuble, firce, hermyte (heremyte, ermyte), i-pasced, iugelour, melodig, mester, piler, poer, prechi, preching, prisoun, roste, siege, tourment, tourne, vertu, y-armee.

(8) The 11,000 Virgins.—Abbesse, aive, baptize, cestein, chast, chere, covent, creatoure, cride, cristenie, damaisele, deol, destruye, lignete, enclynede, fame, gent(r)ise, grante, heir, honoure, martyrs, message, noblei, nonnerie, paye, preisi, priveité, queynte, servie, spouse, suede, suffra, sustenance, tresches, tumbé, virgines.

(9) St. Edmund the Confessor.—Abhod, acordi, alosed, amende, amendement, ancestres, anu, archebischop, arismetrike, avanced, bayers, best, cahoun, catel, cerclen, certes, chamberlain, chancellor, chapitre, chaste, chasteté, clergie, comun, confessor, confort, consailli, conte, contynuelliche, cours, croserie, custume, defaute, delyvre, deofulliche, desire, desputede, desputé, desturbie, disciple, discipline, divinité, ellectioun, ensample, ensente, entende, envie, faillen, feble, feblische, figours, flour, franchyse, fyne (end), grace, grandsire, grevede, grevy, hauberk, ioyful, i-soilled, i-sustened, i-tourmentede, largeliche, legat, lessoun, lettres, magesté, maistrie, mariage, merci, meseise, messenger, minstre, nonnes, nombre, obedience, ordre, oreisoun, ostesse, pamerie, paume, payest, persones, pité, pitousliche, plener, parvide, pouer, prechen, prechoun, prioress, piousliche, profound, pryveiliche, qucor, quitoure, religioun, rounde, roveisouns, savour, scole, scolers, seculer, seint, semblant, sentence, signe, sojourney, spense, spoushede, stabliche, stat, studie, symonye, trinité, tresourer, tuochi, université, usede, viscoun, werrie, ymage.

(10) St. Edmund the King.—Bisigede, corteys, hardie, honour, noble, pelrynage, pitousliche, quoynte, robbade, scourgen, sien, tourmentours.

(11) St. Katherine.—Apeired, artz, blame, blandisinge, conforti, desputi, emperesse, emperour, empaice, falliest, gent, gentrise, glorie, gywise, i-granti, iourneyes, i-scourged, idgement, justice, maister, maistrie, mossel-mele, nobliche, oylle, paleys, philosophe, plaidi, preisc, preovie, preyere, prisoun, privei, prophete, quoyntise, rasours, resoun, sacrifyse, scourges, sustenie, temple, tourment, traitour, turmente, turne, verne.

(12) St. Andrew.—Doutte, folle, i-tournd, preciouss, pur, scourgi, tourmentour.

(13) Seinte Lucie.—Antende, aprochi, beile, comun, defouled, encharmentz, enchantours, fisciciens, grevous, i-granted, i-spend, lechour, meneisoun, norice, presse, que(y)nteliche, sauter, spere, tendré, tuochede, tuochinge.

(14) St. Edward.—Aventoures, blame, pore.

(15) Judas Iscariot.—Anuyed, waitede, banuyt, baret, bi-cas, heire, hurlede, i-chasted, kedwerie, maugre, norisschie, oignement, peren (pears), privité, purs-berer, repentant, kusteyle.

(16) Pilate.—Accorde, accoume, amaistrede, ascapede, asentede, aventure, baillie, bi-trayed, chaste, crede, curteie, defaute, destruyde, dulfol, duri, enquered, enqueste, face, failled, felonie, forme, gailer, gentrice, gyle, hostage, iuggede, kevechiaf, norisschi, passi, peer, queyntere, repented, roche, spousbreche, swaged, tempest, trecherie, tresour, truage, yle.

(17) The Pit of Hell (in "Fragments of Popular Science," ed. Wright).—Angusse, bal, balle, capdle, change, cler, cours, crestal, debonere, debrusede, departi, diverse, air (air), elementz, entempri, firriament, forme, frut, (atte) fyne, glotouns, hardi, i-closed, lecherie, maner, mayster, norissching, noye, occian (ocean), planete, post, pur, purvide, qualite, resoun, runde, semblant, signes, trespis, temprieth, turment, turnerh, veyres.

X. B. "The Holy Rode" (in "Legends of the Holy Rood"), ed. Morris, for E.E.T. Society:—

Ahansed, amount, anuyd, baptizen, bast (bastard), batail, baundone, carpenters, carcion, cercle, chere, cek, compaignye, comun, confermy, conseil, confuic, cisteny, croys, deboner, debrusede, dedeyned, defaute, defouled, delit, desirede, destrued, doute, emperour, enqueri, erwie, failede, feble, feste, floues, fourme, frut, fyn, grace, gred-ire, gynne, hasteliche, honouri, honur, ioie, lecherie, lettres, maister, maner, mark, melodie, noble, nobleie, offring, oise, paie, parais, partie, pascion, paynym, penaunce, plce, power, prechede, presious, price, prison, procession, prophete, queyntise, rosti, sauter, save, sege, sepulcre, serte, servey, sign, siwy, somounce, stat, temple, tormentynge, treson, trinite, trone, turne, valeie, vertu.

XI. "Robert of Gloucester's Chronicle," ed. Hearne, about 1295:—

Abaty, abbei, abytt, acerte, acord, acordy, acoyntede, acused, adauntede, afaxty, age, alian, aliéd, almesse, alur, ambes-as, amendement, amendy, anyrayl, anauntre, angvss, anguyssous, anhansy, anties, anyed, apayed, apert, apertelyche, apeynede, apoysony, arayed, arblaste, archers, archetemples, arivi, arme, armure, asaille, asaut, asayed, ascapede, asise, asoyly, aspie, assumption, assygied, astoned, astore, attired, atyled, atyr, guncetres, akate, avanced, avancement, avys, avysyon, awatede, bachel, bachelerie, bailifs, banerets, baptize, barons, baronye, bast (= bastardy), bastard, bataile, belamy, besans, bestes, bi-cas, bi-tray, blamde, borgeis, boteler, botelerye, branches, brochie, bulle, by-clopi, by-sege, by-turne, cable, cacchynge, cacheth, calangy, calis, caicrefret, canons, cardinals,

carole, caroyne, cartre, cas, castel, cathedral, cell, cellyn, chaere, chamberlein, change, chantement, chapele, charge, chartre, chase, chast, chastare, chasty, chatchys, chaumbre, chaunce, chaunceler, chef, chekere, cheson, chéventeyn, choyz, chirurgian, citacion, cité, cler, clergé, clos, cloisi, coler, colour, comforty, commune, company, compas, y-compaced, concentede, concubine, conndut, y-confermed, conferment, confermyng, conquest, conseil (= council), conseleres, conseily, constable, contcini, contek, conteked, contenance, contesse, contré, cope, corageus, cors, corteys, corfeysie, cosyn, couctyse, court, covenant, coven, coveyteth, creysede, creyserye, crie, crounement, crouny, crowne, croys, cruel, custome, damesel, daungere, debonere, debrusede, dedeyn, defaut, defendi, defansables, defense, defoule, delaye, delivery, delyt, demande, demayde, demembered, deol, deoulful, departe, descord, descrivyng, deserite, deserte, desordein, despepled, despisest, despit, despoyled, devarce, destourbaunce, destourpede, destresse, destruye, desyre, desyry, devocyan, digne, dñer, diorse, doails, dossepers, doue, dragon, druery, dure, durynde, egre, enhaunce, eir, emperesse, emperie, emperour, emprisonede, enchantement, enchanter, enchantery, encheson, enlegiance, enresonede, esample, ensenten, entechte, entisede, entre, entredit, envye, ercedelaine, eritage, ermyne, ermytes, esc, escé, evangelist, faile (subst. and verb), faile, fame, feble, feblesse, felliche, felon, felonye, fers, feste, fey, feynede, feyntyse, ficcia, firmament, fol, fol-hardy, follarge, folye, forest, forester, forme, for be cause (because), foundement, franchise, freres, frount, fruyt, fysik, (atte) syn, fynede, garyson, geant, general, gent, gentise, gentyl, gleyve, glose, glosyng, glotonye, gout, governy, grace, graunt, graunti, grevede, gyle, gyn, gynne, gywel, hardi, hardynesse, hardyssy, hasarderye, hastiliche, hastines, hastyf, hauberk, haunttede, hautinesse, holer, homage, honour, honoury, improued, incarnacion, ioustes, joye, joyful, joynged, jugged, juggement, justizes, keverede, keverynge, lampreye, lante, langage, large, largelyche, largesse, lecheri, lechour, legat, letre, leveres, los, lyge, won, mace, madame, maister, maistry, mandement, maner, mangenc, mantel, marbreston, marchandise, marshal, marriage, mari, masse, maynage, medycine, menstrales, merci, meschance, meseyse, messenger, mesures, metel, meyne, monteynes, mortar, mossel, mynstre, miracle, mysautre, mysaventure, myscheving, neuue, noble, noblei, nobliche, nonnery, norys, norysy, norysyng, noumbre, noye, obligi, ocean, offre, offryng, of-scapie, of-served, omage, ordeino, c. deyne, oryson, ost, ostage, y-osted, outrage, paile, pais, palefrey, paleys, parkes, parlements, part, partede, partye, partyer, pas, passion, passy, patriarc, patron, pavelon, paviment, pay, paynen, payns (pagans), pecc, pecc-mele, penance, perauant, Percy, pere, peryl, perys, philosophie, pite, pitosliche, place, plainyng, planetes, playdinge, playnede, playnte, plente, plenteus, pleyn, porchacy, porpos, porter, portes, purreance, porveyede, posterne, potage, poudre, pouell, poucre, poverté, power, poynte, poyson, preche, prichours, prechyng, prelat, presant, prest, preve, preyse, prince, principal, priories, prise, prison, prive, priveliche,

priveté, proceſſyon, p^{ro}cedure, p^{ro}phete, p^{ro}ves, prys, pur, purliche, pur meſel, pyté, qu^orel, quoyne, quoyteliche, quoyntise, quyt, toraced, rage, raunſom, rabe!, recet, recetted, regnede, relesi, relygion, relykes, remuede, renable, rentes, repentant, restored, resun, reverence, reverye, revested, rich, se, robbéy, robbour, robbý, roche, romance, rose, roſtede, rourde, route, ryveres, ſacri, ſacrifiſe, ſacring, ſauf, ſauſſyche, ſaut, ſawve, ſay, ſcapye, ſcarſeliche, ſcarlet, ſcaubert, ſclaundre, ſcourged, ſecund, ſege, ſeizede, ſemblant, ſemble, ſenatour, ſentence, ſervage, ſerve, ſerviſe, ſeynorie, ſinkpors, ſire, ſiwe, ſiwte, ſocour, ſodeinliche, ſoffry, ſolaci, ſolas, ſomeine, ſoſtini, ſouple, ſouſprior, ſovereyn, ſpecialliche, ſpence, ſpoſhed, ſpouſe, ſpouſebruche, ſpouſy, ſpouſyng, ſpycery, ſpyte, ſquiers, ſtable, ſtabliche, ſtat, ſtorp, ſtrange, ſtrel, ſtreytlyche, ſuſpended, ſuſtynance, ſygne, ſymple, tabernacle, tables, targe, taverne, taylor, tempeſt, temple, temprede, tendre, terme, toſet, tormont, tornemens, tour, towchyng, transmigration, trauayl, traytor, treche, trecherus, treson, tresorye, tresour, trespas, tricherie, trone, troſe, truage, turnede, tyrant, un-armed, uncle, un-deſerved, un-maried, un-ſtable, vacauns, valci, vantward, vaſſayl, veage, veneson, vengeance, venymed, verlyt, vertu, veyn, vilenye, viniterie, voweson, vyzyon, wardcyn, wareſon, warneſture, waryſon, werroſs, worrede, wympel, yle, ymage.

XII. *Harz MS.* 2253.

(1) Proverbs of Hendyng, 1272-1307 (in "Specimens of Early English").—Fule, gyleth, malc, ſervys, sot, tempred, warysoun.

(2) Lyric Poetry (ed. Wright, for Percy Society).—Ache, alumere, anys, asoye, baner, bairdoun, bayly, bealté, beryl, bis, blame, bounte, bref, broche, canel, caynard, caye doyne, champioun, charboche, charité, chaung, chere, cler, cofre, columbine, compaignie, comyn, coral, ounsail, cunſeileth, court, coveytise, coynte, crie, crone, croune, dempned, diamaund, doute, duel (dole), emeraude, encenz, cigyn, cyse, face, false, faucoun, foble, feynt, flour, folies, forke, fourme, frere, frout, fyn, fyno gay, gentil, gernet, glotonie, goute, grace, graciouse, graune, grin, gromyl, gyle, gylofre, gyngyvre, honoures, jasper, jay, joie, jolyf, jolyſt, joyeth, largesse, latymer, launterne, layendère, lealté, lecherie, acoris, lilie, lilye-white, lacerusere, maister, maistry, mandeth (menedeth), margarite, medicyn, merci, mondrake, notes, onyde, palefrey, papejai, par, par-mours, parais, parvenke, pæſeth, peeſ, peyne, pioté, pleyntes, poer, poure, precious, preide, preie, presente, primerols, pris, quilibet, resoun, reyes, richesse, romaunz, rose, ruby, saph. r, sauge, savgth, scourge, sedewale, serven, ſer-ys, siwed, soffre, solas, solsiel, soutes, sotel, soteleth, spices, ſucſe, tortle, tour, treacle, tresor, tressour, tricheri, trichour, trone, trous, vñore, virgyne, = "wayte giedé" (water ember).

APPENDIX IV.

SPECIMENS.

The Parable of the Sower.

(Mark iv. 3-8).

GOthic.

3. Hlauseip! sai urrann sa saigand, du saian fraiwa sci.. swa.
4. jah warþ miþþanei saiso, sum raihtis gadraus laur wig, jah qemup fuglos jah fretun þa.
5. anþarup þa: gadraus ana staisahamma, þarei ni hābaida airþa managa, jah suns urrann, in þizei ni hābaida diupaizos airþos;
6. at sunnu þan urrinnandin afbrann, jah unte ni hābaida waurtins, gabaurnode.
7. jah sum gadraus in þaurmus, jah ufarstigun þa þaurmus jah afliwajidedun þa, jah akran ni gaf.
8. jah sum gadraus in airþa goda, jah gaf akran urrinnando jah walsjando, jah bar airt. l. jah ain. j. jah ain. r.

WEST-SAXON.

3. Gelofað;
Ut eode se sēdere his, sæd tō sāwerne.
4. ⁊ þā hē sēw sum féoll wið þone weg. ⁊ agelas cōmon ⁊ hit fræton.
5. Sum féoll ofel stān-scylicgan, þār hit næfde mycele eorðan ⁊ sōna up eode, ⁊ forþam hit næfde eorþan picnesse,
6. þa hit up eode, seo sunne hit forswælde, ⁊ hit forseranc, forþam hit wyrtruman næfde.
7. ⁊ sum féoll of þornas. þa stigon ða þornas ⁊ forþrysmodon þæt, ⁊ hit wæstin ne bær.
8. ⁊ sum féoll on gōd land ⁊ hit sealde upp stigende ⁊ wexende wæstm ⁊ án brōhte þritig fealdne, sum syxtig fealdne, sum hund fealdne.

EARLY NORTHUMBRIAN.

3. Hérað heonc eode ðe sawende f séderé to sawenne
Audite ecce exiit semina ad seminandum.
4. ⁊ middý geséau oðer f sum feoll ym ða strét ⁊ cwómon
et dum seminat aliud cecidit circa viam et venerunt
flégendo ⁊ frétton f éton ðæt.
volucres et comederant illud.
5. sum ec f eoll ofer stánes ðe ne hæfde cordu
aliud vero cecidit super petrosa ubi non habuit terram
michel f menig ⁊ hræðe upp-íornende wæs f arisen wæs forðon
multam et statim exortum est quoniam
næfde léanisse corðes.
non habebat altitudinem terrae.
6. ⁊ ða arisen wæs f ða upp-éode sunna ge-drúgade f forbánde
et quando exortus est sol exstinguit
forðon næfde wytruma gealrugade.
eo quod non haberet radicem exaruit.
7. ⁊ sum feoll in ðorrum ⁊ astigon upp-éorðum ðornas ⁊
et aliud cecidit in spinis et ascenderunt spinae et
underdulfon þæt ⁊ wæstm ne salde.
suffocaverunt illud et fructum non dedit.
8. ⁊ oðer feoll on cordu góðum ⁊ salde wæstm stigende
et aliud cecidit in terram bonam et dabat fructum ascendentem
⁊ wæxende ⁊ to-bróhte éane f án ðrittig ⁊ án sexdig ⁊
et crescentem et adferebat unum triginta et unum sexaginta et
án hundrað.
unum centum.

Psalm xiv. (xv).

(*Vespasian Psalter. H. Sweet, The Oldest English Texts, p. 201.*)

1. Dryhter, hwelc eaf-lað in selegescote ðinum, oððe hwelc
Domine quis habitabit in tabernaculo tuo aut quis
geresteð in munte ðæf halgan ðinum?
requiescit in monte sancto tuo?
- 2, 3. Se ingeð bútan womme ⁊ wirceð cichtwisnisne. Se
Qui ingreditur sine macula et operatur iustitiam. Qui
spriceð soðfestnir ean beortan his ⁊ nis fácaen in tungan his.
loquitur veritatem in corde suo et non egit dolum in lingua sua.
Nec he dyle ðæne næstan his yfel edwit ne onféng
Nec fecit proximo suo malum et opprobrium non accepit
wið ðæm næstan his.
adversus proximum suum

4. To nówihte gelæded bið in gesihte his se awergða; ondrédende
 Ad nihilum deductus est in conspectu ejus malignus; timentes
 soðlice dryhten gemiclað. Se swereð ðæt nēstan his ⁊ ne
 autem Dominum magnificat. Qui jurat proximo suo et no
 beswac hine.
 deceptus cum.

5. Se fch his ne salde tó westemscette ⁊ gefe ofer
 Qui pecuniam suam non dedit ad usuram et munera super
 ðone unscēfullan ne onfeng. Se dóeð ðas ne bið he onstýred
 innocentem non accepit. Qui facit haec non commovebitur
 in écnisse.
 in aeternum.

(*Eadwine's Canterbury Psalter, ed. Harsley, Early English Text Society.*)

1. Drihten, wylc eardæp on þinre gæste t eardungstowe t teld oþðæc
 wylc restep on þinre hælgræn dunc t munte?

2. Se ingeþ buten wemmc ⁊ wyrp ihtwisnesse.

3. Se þe spryceþ soþfestnesse on his heortan ⁊ ne deþ inwyd t facn on
 his tungær ne dyde his niextæn yfel ⁊ edwit t hosp ne anfeng ongean
 his niextæn.

4. To næchte biþ geled on his gesihþe se æwergede. soðlice þe þe
 drihten ondræp he hig gemuclað. Se þe sweræþ his niextæn.

5. ⁊ hiene ne beswic, ⁊ his fioh ne seleþ to westme oðð to hýre ⁊
 his læc ne onfehþ ofer þone unscylðigen. Se þe þæs deþ ne biþ he
 astýred t gedrefed on ecnesse.

(*Northumbrian Psalter, published by the Surtees Society. Specimen of
 Early English, Part II. p. 24. Early 12th century.*)

1. Lauerd, in þi teld wha sal wone?

In þi hali hille or wha reste moit?

2. Whilke þat incomes wemles,

And ai wirkes rightwisnesse;

3. þat spekes sothnes in hert his,

And noght dide swikeldome in tæng his,

Ne dide to hi. neghburgh iuel ne gram,

Ne ogaines his neghburgh vpbraiding nam.

4. To noght cæde lither in his sight;

And dredan Lauerd he gades right,

He þat to his neghburgh sweres,

And noght biswikes him ne deres.

5. Ne his siluer til ok noght es giuand;

Ne giftes toke quer undand.

þat does þese night and dai,

Noght sal he be stired in ai.

(*The Earliest Complete English Prose Psalter, ed. Bülbring. Early English Text Society.*)

1. Lord, who schal woken in þy tabernacle, oþer who schal resten in þyn holy hill?

2. He þat entreþ wyþouten wem̃n and wyrcheþ ryȝtfulnesse;

3. He þat speke soþnes in hys hert, and ne dide no trecherie in his tunge; Ne did non yuel to his neȝbur, ne tokȝ no reprusynge oȝayn hys neȝburs.

4. þe wicked hys brouȝt to nouȝt in hys siȝt, And God glorifieth þe dredand our Lord. Iȝe that swereth to hys neȝbur and deceiueþ hym nouȝt;

5. and ȝaf nouȝt hys tresour to oȝer and ne tok ȝiftes up innocent; he, bat doþ þes bynges, ne schal nouȝt be stired wyþ-outen ende.

(*According to the Wycliffite Version made by Nicholas de Hereford ab. A.D. 1381, and revised by John Purvey ab. A.D. 1388.*)

1. Lord, who schal dwelle in thi tabernacle; oþer who schal reste in thin hooli hil?

2. He that entreth with out wem; and worchith riȝtfulnesse.

3. Which spekith treuthe in his herte; which wile not gile in his tunge. Neþer wile yuel to his neȝbor; and took not schenschip aȝens hise neȝboris.

4. A wickid man is brouȝt to nouȝt in his siȝt; but he glorifieth hem that dreden the Lord. Which swereth to his neȝbore, and disseyueth not;

5. Which ȝaf not his money to vsure; and took not ȝiftis on the innocent. He, that doith these thingis, schal not be moeued with-outen ende.

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